

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE minority report of Mr. Pattison of the Pacific Railway Commission seems to be the wildest official production that has ever appeared in print since the Pacific Railroad was opened for business. Mr. Pattison recommends that all plans for recovering the Government's money be made subordinate to the "punishment of the criminals," and that the first step to be taken should be the forfeiture of the charters of both roads. How this forfeiture should be accomplished is not made very clear. If it is to be done by act of Congress, the fact that the Central Pacific's charter was granted by the State of California might constitute an obstacle. If it is to be done by a suit at law in which the United States is to figure as plaintiff, it might be objected that under the terms of the original act the debt to the Government is not due until some ten years hence, and that under the Thurman Act nothing is due except certain payments to the sinking fund, which have been duly made in accordance with the terms of that act. It might and would be set up in bar of such a suit that when the Government established a mode of payment by the Thurman Act, and received payments under the same, it was estopped from forfeiture proceedings as to any acts or things occurring before that time, so long as the terms of the act are complied with. The whole scope of Mr. Pattison's report bears the impress of crankiness. It is fortunate that two members of the Commission kept the main object of their appointment in view, and sought diligently for means to get the Government's money paid, just as any right-minded attorney of a creditor would do in handling a debtor's estate.

The main points of the report of the Commission are that the companies shall execute a formal mortgage to the Government in place of the present statutory mortgage, and shall include in it their branch lines and all their property; that thereupon the debt shall be extended to fifty years at 3 per cent. interest, payable semi-annually, with a sinking fund of one-half of one per cent. for the first ten years, at the end of which period a sinking fund shall be established which will pay off the whole debt at maturity. To this is added a proviso that the roads shall empower the Attorney-General of the United States to bring any suit he may see fit in behalf of the companies to secure restitution of moneys due to the companies from any private individual or corporation. This plan is perfectly rational throughout. It ought to be adopted by Congress at an early day.

The Stock Exchange seems to have taken amiss the action of the Vanderbilt roads in not increasing their dividends in proportion to their earnings, the quotations for all of

them falling slightly after the decision was made. Probably a more rational view will be taken after a few days. The action of the companies was conservative and prudent in a high degree, as was also that of the Lackawanna Company, which decided in like manner to lay up a reserve fund against a rainy day. There are surpluses and surpluses—some which represent losses in former years, and which stand on the ledger for an indefinite period because the managers have not the courage to write them off the books. Very few of those venerable surpluses are available to make good a shrinkage of earnings in a bad year. But there can be no doubt, apparently, that the surplus kept back by the New York Central, Lake Shore, Michigan Central, and Canada Southern from the present dividends is a real reserve, which may be used either to make good a deficiency in some other year, or to avoid borrowing in case a necessary improvement is called for. In either case, the shares of the companies ought to advance rather than decline. It requires some courage to face discontented shareholders and withhold from them money which they think belongs to them, but it is only the first step that costs. It will be easier the next time. The experience of all these roads during the past five years teaches that no company can afford to distribute its entire earnings in times of prosperity. If the New York Central had divided only 6 per cent. during the heyday of good times, and had kept the balance in available form for the bad times that were threatened and that actually followed, it might have gone through the West Shore crisis without passing a dividend.

There has been no more melancholy sight in this country since the abolition of slavery than that afforded by the strike of the poor men in the employ of the Reading Railroad, at the beginning of the winter, most of them with families dependent on them. They had no grievance against the company except that it would not allow the train hands to decide for whom it shall carry freight, and they were controlled, under the organization of the Knights of Labor, by a band of scheming adventurers who insisted on the company's submitting this question to "arbitration," and levy money from the laborers' wages for salaries and office rent. There is no use in blaming the Powderlys, and Quinns, and Lees, and the like, for trying to live by organizing, and holding meetings, and issuing orders. Tens of thousands of men in all ranks of life would live in the same way if they could get the chance. What is most to be deplored in the matter is the immense mass of childish ignorance which these strikes represent, and which makes the "Grand Masters" and the "General Worthy Foremen" possible. Mayor Hewitt, on Thursday night, at the dinner of the Board of Trade, spoke some telling words about the responsibility of the class of politi-

cians who encourage these "secret and irresponsible organizations" in their attacks on the peace and industry of the country, by pretending to think their existence and activity justified by the conduct of "capital."

It usually happens, in disputes and strikes where the Knights of Labor are concerned, that there are a lot of "private understandings" relied upon by the master workmen and executive committees to justify themselves to the public and their own followers. These private understandings usually consist of hints, winks, insinuations, or other deceptive contrivances on the part of the employer which convey to the master workmen, etc., the idea that if they will order the strike off, their demands will be complied with in some roundabout way. The history of the great Southwestern strike was full of such private understandings between Gen. Hoxie and Martin Irons, and even Mr. Powderly had resort to one such understanding with Jay Gould, although the written correspondence and short-hand report of the conversation between the parties proved conclusively that there was not and could not have been any such understanding. The Reading strike has yielded the usual crop of whispered agreements, the most important being the pretended agreement between the Superintendent and the Strike Committee to submit the differences to arbitration. Everybody with the least grain of intelligence must have seen that there was no room for arbitration, since there was no question of wages, or hours, or methods of labor to submit to arbitrators. The question in dispute was whether the Reading Company should obey a law which requires it to transport freight for all persons offering the same without discrimination. Was there anything here to arbitrate upon? Arbitration implies that a decision may be given against you, and that if it is, you must abide by it. It can have no other meaning. Suppose that the arbitrators in the supposed case were to decide that the Reading Company need not carry the flour of Taylor & Sons? Would such a decision relieve them from penalties under the Interstate Commerce Act or under the law of Pennsylvania? Suppose the arbitrators were to decide that, although the Reading Company were obliged to carry the flour of Taylor & Sons, yet, if their employees refused to move the cars, the company had no right to put others in their places. Would such a decision save them from seizure by the sheriff? The very statement of the case shows that the alleged understanding between the Superintendent and the Knights was impossible. The evident truth is, that it was a fiction invented by the Committee to preserve their credit with their own deluded followers.

We are glad to say a publishers' copyright league has been formed to cooperate with the

authors in trying to secure international copyright legislation this winter. The absence of this coöperation has been until now one of the great difficulties in the way of success; publishers, as "practical men" and extensive employers of labor, having more weight with Congressmen than writers of books. As long, too, as there was enough comity between publishers to secure respect for any arrangement which any one of them might make with foreign authors, they were not very zealous in favor of a copyright treaty. The pirate has destroyed all that, however, and convinced them that there is no security except in legislation. This will go far to narrow the opposition down to simple enjoyment of theft—or, in other words, of benefit of some kind at another man's expense. Nothing is more comic or more novel, and yet more characteristic of our age, than the argument which one frequently hears in opposition to international copyright, that although it is wrong to clothe or feed yourself, it is quite right, and even praiseworthy, to develop yourself mentally, with the proceeds of another man's labor.

Whatever may be done about the case of Dakota, it is to be hoped that nothing will come of the scheme reported to be under consideration at Washington for admitting several Territories as States at the same time. New Mexico and Montana, which are said to be included in this scheme, are not fit to become States, and will not be for some time to come. New Mexico is still largely a foreign community, and has no just claim to exercise an equal influence in the Senate with great States like New York and Pennsylvania. Montana still retains many of the elements of a frontier region, and it is not yet certain that it will not prove well to change the boundaries between Montana and adjoining Territories. Washington Territory has been so long settled by a homogeneous population that it has a just claim to admission as soon as the question of rectifying its eastern boundary line is settled; but Montana and New Mexico ought to serve a long apprenticeship yet. The evils of the Territorial condition are grossly exaggerated by the politicians who hope to get the State offices, and they are really but small. Even if they were much greater, they should not offset the evils to the nation of making States too soon—evils which have been forcibly illustrated in the case of Nevada. One experience of that sort is quite enough for all time.

We did not know how largely the national prosperity is due to the tariff on potatoes until we read Monday's *Tribune*. We then learned from an interview with a dealer in the article that if the duty of 15 cents per bushel were repealed or materially lowered, we should not be able to compete with European potatoes in our own markets. Scotland, it appears, is our fiercest competitor at Washington Market, but England, Holland, Belgium, Germany, and Denmark are pressing the Long Island farmer with great energy. "If,"

says this New York dealer, "they send as much as they do while there is still a fifteen-cent tariff on potatoes, what would be the limit of this supply if that much profit is added to each bushel? It would, I think, soon be found unprofitable to raise potatoes in America." It might be added—and the reflection will occur to every logical mind—that if we cannot raise potatoes without a tariff, we shall soon be unable to raise wheat or cotton without it, and that we are rapidly approaching the condition of not being able to earn a living off the most bountiful land in the world without a system of taxation that locks up \$100,000,000 a year of our money. The poultry dealers are already complaining of the competition of foreign-laid eggs. The ice-cutters a few years ago wanted a duty on foreign ice, and thought that they were ill used because they didn't get it. The fishermen have upset the Treaty of Washington and got us into a deal of trouble for the sake of a duty on salt fish. And now the sorghum-boilers in Kansas are protesting against any meddling with the duty on sugar because they say that they can make sugar as cheaply as it can be made in Louisiana. A hod-carrier in this city lifted up his voice the other day against any disturbance of the tariff, fearing apparently that brick buildings erected by pauper labor might rush in here from Europe. As to coal, how often have we been told that although we have about thirty times as much of this mineral as Great Britain and Canada combined, we should be compelled to leave it in the earth and depend upon foreign supplies if the duty were removed. Indeed, we can imagine a condition in which we should all be thrown helpless on our backs, and be compelled to receive our food, clothing, and fuel from foreigners, giving them nothing in return. How long they would continue to supply us on those terms, heaven only knows.

Gov. Hill has certainly done himself credit by his message sent to the Legislature on Tuesday. It is a plain, sensible, straightforward document, without any bunkum or demagoguery in it, or anything on which one cannot differ with him respectfully. His recommendations are in the main very good. He advocates spring municipal elections and a revision of the charter of this city; the provision of a special counsel to the Legislature, to revise bills before they become laws—an excellent suggestion, which he has already made; a revision of the tax laws of the State, with the view of making personal property "pay its just share"—a chimerical idea, against which the experience of the civilized world is everywhere running. Personal property in our day is too readily concealed to be a proper object of taxation at all. He recommends the abolition of the State Board of Charities and of the State Board of Health, and the transfer of their powers respectively to a single officer—a step in the right direction—and of the Board of Regents as a useless and purely ornamental body; the calling of the Constitutional Convention; the permission to the Court of Appeals

to affirm a conviction if, in its opinion, there was sufficient evidence to warrant it besides testimony improperly admitted—a much-needed reform, which would save the court from much popular distrust. He argues at much length, and with force, in favor of the restriction of the confirming power of the Senate to the cases in which it is called for by the Constitution; but reserves his heaviest artillery for the refusal of the Legislature to provide for the State enumeration and apportionment. On the liquor question he is as dumb as an oyster, and has hardly a word to say for "labor"—except that the Board of Arbitration is in "fairly successful operation," which will be news to most people. Some of his topics need more comment than is possible in a mere summary; but, on the whole, he has acquitted himself much more like Gov. David B. Hill than the "Dave Hill" of last year, who has hitherto afforded so much sport to the Republicans by allowing himself to be put "in a hole."

Gov. Hill's removal of Messrs. Jay and Richmond from the State Civil-Service Commission has been looked for every day since he asked for their resignations last July, without giving any reason. They refused to resign on the very good ground that such places as theirs ought not to be vacated without some explanation to the public of the cause of the change. The usefulness of these gentlemen, however, was greatly diminished by the Governor's unconcealed hostility to the law which they were trying to enforce, and the influence of his example in instigating nearly all the State officials to violate or ignore it in a greater or less degree. Mr. Jay and Mr. Richmond had the prime qualification of thorough devotion to their duty, and gave their time and attention unstintingly for what was to men in their position practically no compensation. What the Governor's motives in removing them are, can of course only be guessed at. His new appointments do not shed much light on the matter. From Mr. Manning and Mr. Treadwell it is perhaps fair to expect an honest attempt to execute the law. As regards the new President of the Board, Gen. Sickles, we shall have to get used to him in the character of a reformer before being able to pass any judgment on his merits. It will not do, however, to condemn the new Commissioners in advance. No matter what we may think of the motives or manner of their appointment, we are bound to give them a fair trial, and hope for the best from them. Possibly the fact that they are the Governor's own selection may help to secure from him more cordial coöperation than he was willing to give their predecessors.

Col. Fellows has begun his term of office as District Attorney in a somewhat unusual manner by giving a public feast. At the same time he makes this sweeping promise: "For the next three years I shall endeavor to make the city of New York an unhealthy and unpleasant place for the

criminally disposed." This lays out as large a field of work as any man would wish to enter upon. The Mayor, who naturally feels some responsibility for the Colonel's "simple Christian life" in the District Attorney's office, hastens to remind him on his entrance upon its duties that there are 15,000 bail cases awaiting trial in the pigeonholes of the office, and says: "I know that you are sensible of the deplorable consequences which result from the failure to dispose of criminal charges and to assure a prompt trial and speedy punishment in case of conviction." Now the District Attorney can in no way make New York more "unhealthy and unpleasant for the criminally disposed" than by bringing these bail cases to trial. They are nearly all for violations of the excise laws, and the greater part of them are against men who have "pulls" in politics. For years the criminal machinery of the city has been paralyzed by "pulls" of this kind, and the reason is that the violators of the laws are also political workers, whose liquor-saloons and gambling-dens are centres of political activity. The Colonel has a great opportunity before him by striking down this most pernicious conspiracy against the laws.

A despatch from St. Paul, Minn., makes this announcement: "The State Railroad Commissioners to-day issued orders that after January 1 each upper berth in any sleeping-car run or operated upon any railroad in this State shall remain closed whenever the berth beneath the same shall be occupied by a passenger, until such upper berth shall be needed for actual occupancy." If this brief order could be put in force all over the country, one of the meanest advantages taken of the travelling public by the sleeping-car companies would no longer have to be submitted to. In explanation of this order it may be stated that the aim of the sleeping-car companies (after charging, in addition to the regular railroad rate, as much for a sleeping accommodation as is charged for a room and board in our best hotels) is to make every passenger pay as much as can be extorted from him. Each "section" of a sleeping-car contains two "berths." If a passenger hires a lower berth and the one above him is not taken, the porters are compelled by the company, under a severe penalty, to let down the upper berth when the lower one is made up, thus cutting off air and light and boxing up the lower occupant as closely as possible. The object of this order is to compel the lower occupant to pay for the breathing-room above him as well as his bed beneath.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's speech at the Toronto Board of Trade dinner was encouraging in the sense that it promised an amicable settlement of the fishery dispute. Whether the settlement comes through arbitration (which was recommended as a last resort by the New York Chamber of Commerce) or otherwise, the country will be thankful, and accordingly has reason to be thankful when so cool a participant as Mr. Chamberlain tells us that, in his opinion, a settlement will

be reached. Mr. Chamberlain is opposed to commercial union between Canada and the United States, because it would lead shortly to political union, and he does not want to bring on political union by roundabout means. But he does not say, and probably he does not mean, that he would oppose political union coming by direct means in obedience to the mutual wishes of the two countries uninfluenced by trade relations. As an English diplomat, he could not favor any step looking to the loss of Canada, although the loss itself he might acquiesce in when it comes without his active agency.

The London correspondent of the *Tribune* ought to be a little more careful about the facts in forwarding "free-trade" stories to his paper. He said on Thursday morning that "if anything is certain, it is certain that an Irish Parliament would adopt a policy of protection," and that, therefore, "home rule once granted, the Liberals will be in as much trouble as the Tories about fair trade." If he had ever taken the trouble to read Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill—the most extreme yet spoken of—he would know that the right of levying customs duties was reserved to the British Parliament, and that the Irish Parliament would have no power whatever to make a tariff. But what can we expect from a correspondent of the *Tribune* when the editor says he never maintained that the election of Cleveland would endanger American industry?

The uproar in England over the fresh reductions made in the Irish rents is another very curious illustration of the way the government of that unfortunate country is carried on. The process of reducing the rents by a Government Commission so as to make them accord with the reduced price of produce was begun in 1881 under Mr. Gladstone's Land Act. They were cut down on an average about 20 per cent., and any rent so reduced was called a "judicial rent." The work had hardly been done, however, when produce began to fall still further, and it became evident that the tenants would find it just as hard to pay the judicial as the ante-judicial rent. When the Tories came into power in 1885, an appeal was made to them to revise the judicial rents, but it was sternly denied, and the "Plan of Campaign," *i. e.*, refusal to pay any rent unless the landlord agreed to further reduction, was adopted by the National League. When the Tories returned to office the second time after Gladstone's defeat on the home-rule issue, Parnell introduced a bill providing for further revision, but it was rejected with horror, Goschen denouncing it as a characteristically dishonest proposal, and one which, if adopted, would weaken the framework of society. Gladstone's revision of rents was bad enough; it would not do to repeat it. It was soon found, however, that the Liberal-Unionists would not support this position, and that if it were adhered to, there would have to be a dissolution of Parliament. So a bill was introduced providing that the accursed thing should be done, and we now see the result. It left

poor Mr. Goschen, who had to push it through the House of Commons, in a pitiable condition about the framework of society. Neither he nor Lord Salisbury, however, probably expected such sweeping reductions as the Commissioners have made, because they not only put the landlords in a worse position than ever, but they go far to whitewash the "Plan of Campaign" and justify Parnell.

The "war scare" in Europe is kept up with reasonable diligence, but does not seem to make much progress. Side by side with the accounts of the military preparations, there are always accounts of a disposition to settle on easy terms. Most of the trouble comes from the existence of semi-official or "inspired" newspapers in the Continental capitals. Now and then—perhaps once in four or five years—they get "the straight tip" from their respective governments, and the result is that everything they say in the interval has a factitious weight, although it may be pure speculation. A war scare is the best mode of running up "sales" known to them, because, as long as the armaments are so large, war will always seem a not improbable contingency, and the "movements" of troops near the frontier a good thing to "work up," either editorially or "reportorially." The way Lord Randolph Churchill has turned this to account by appearing on the scene himself, shows what a talent he has for advertising, and what a man he would be to push a ready-made clothing business. His visit to St. Petersburg is of no more importance than that of any John Smith, but all Europe is wondering what it means.

Various signs point to a new era of extravagance in Mexican financiering, after the irksome economies of the past two years. The loan of \$52,500,000 just authorized by Congress is, on its face, a scheme to pay old debts by contracting new and more onerous ones. The terms of the loan are so vaguely defined that a leading commercial journal of Mexico is unable to say what they mean; they may imply interest at 6 per cent., or, more likely, 8½, or, possibly, 15. The Congress, also, after the established and vicious manner of intrusting large powers to the President during a Congressional interim, gave him authority to renew lapsed subventions to railroads, to make concessions and grant subsidies to newly projected lines, to make contracts for the survey of public lands, and for the planting of colonies. It is very natural, then, that on the heels of the adjournment of Congress come reports of a multiplicity of new schemes to "develop the resources of the country." There may be little substantial fact back of some of these large-sounding enterprises, but their being talked of is a sure sign that the speculators confidently expect a return of the good times of the lavish Administration of Gonzales. When it is remembered that all this is accompanied by the same wide gap between governmental receipts and expenditures which has been characteristic of the last three years, it looks as if the old financial policy of "after us the deluge" were to be put in force again,

REFORM OF THE HOUSE BY CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

To the end that the Constitutional Amendment for the reformation of the House of Representatives, which we lately presented, may be more clearly apprehended, we reduce to a few plain, concise points what it will accomplish and what it will not do:

(1.) It now takes thirteen months to pass from a Congressional election to the time when the members elected assemble. The proposed amendment will enable the people to change *one-half of the members of the House in one month*, and the other half in the same time that they can now do it. With this fact so plainly in view, we are at a loss to understand the hallucination which says that the amendment will remove the House further from the people.

(2.) If an important change of public opinion should come over the country, say in two months after an election, it will be about *three years*, under the existing system, before the people can replace the recently elected House of Representatives. Under the proposed system *they could replace one-half of them in eleven months*. Constituted as the American Congressman is, we know that a decided expression of public opinion at these annual elections will be just as potent on the men who are not then elected as on the men who are; in fact, with an election before him "next year," a Congressman will be much more sensitive to public opinion than if he had just gained his seat. We can, indeed, conceive of no possible method for bringing the House of Representatives nearer to the people and making it more sensitive to the public will than that proposed.

(3.) Under the present system all the members of the House hold their seats through half of their operative official life (*i. e.*, through the most important session of Congress) after their successors have been elected, and when nearly two years must expire before another election can be held. Under the proposed system *no member will occupy his seat after his successor has been elected*, and the monstrous absurdity and abuse of the present system will disappear.

(4.) Under the present system, no matter what the public exigency, no matter what the condition of the legislative business, a law more unalterable than that of the Medes and Persians compels the dissolution of Congress in each alternate year at a fixed day and hour. The inevitable and gross abuses of the system are too well known to need repeating. Under the proposed system that arbitrary dissolution will disappear, the termination of the one session will be as manageable as the termination of the other, and *Congress will have no excuse for doing its work hastily or adjourning before its work is done*.

(5.) The present system, bringing dissolution as frequently as it does, involves the most astounding waste of everything that should be economized in the legislative system. Not only does Congress expire, but everything which it has labored upon, if not actually completed, expires with it. As we now go to press, the House of Representatives is still unorganized, and the single indi-

vidual who forms the committees and who may, if he pleases, dictate the policy of the House, has not yet completed his selection. Under the proposed system, *the House will be organized from the hour when the Speaker is elected*; a working body equipped for work, and ready for work, and able on the second or third day of the session to take up the work of the nation precisely where the preceding Congress left off.

Let us now turn to the things which the proposed amendment will not do:

(1.) It will not retain the present vicious system of the short session.

(2.) It will not keep members in office after their successors have been elected.

(3.) It will not retain the arbitrary destruction of the legislative organization in each alternate year.

(4.) It will not bring together a large, unorganized mass of new members within a month, or two months, of their election (as proposed by the Crain amendment), with the heat of the election still upon them, and all the dangers of disorganization before them.

(5.) While it will make public sentiment felt annually, and almost instantly in Congress, it will not go to the dangerous extreme of enabling some temporary public excitement to overpower the national legislature.

With these facts plainly in view, we ask every thoughtful person to remember that while everything in our country has grown greater—its territory, its population, its intelligence—the product of our national legislation has not improved, and, indeed, has so deteriorated that the work of the last Congress is not comparable with the work of the first; and then to ponder the following question: What would be thought of a great railroad corporation that in each alternate year, on the 4th of March, at the hour of noon, stopped all of its trains wherever they might chance to be, in the midst of a prairie or crossing a bridge; blew the water out of the boilers, put out the fires, invited the passengers to get out and walk, unloaded the freight, burned the tickets, blanks, and forms, cancelled their contracts, recalled their advertisements, and then took a long breath and began again? And what would be thought of a company that kept on doing this for no better reason than that they feared, if they did not, the brakemen might be a continuing body, and some day run away with the trains?

A plan to change the administrative methods of government will frequently attract no attention whatever, sometimes will arouse warm opposition, occasionally will receive decided approval. The Constitutional Amendment to change inauguration day from the 4th of March to the 30th of April was of the last class. Its merits were instantly perceived; the bar and the bench recognized the practical advantages which would accrue to legislative work; patriotic sentiment felt it to be a graceful commemoration of the one hundredth anniversary of Washington's inauguration: the press advocated it, and the militia sent in petitions asking for its adoption. But the Constitutional Amendment to reform the House of Representatives which we have

propounded, has been remarkable in being received in none of these ways. Probably no other ever caused at the same moment and in the same persons so much commendation and so much doubt. Thus, in a very fair and intelligent article, wishing the question to be discussed and settled, the *Washington Post* says:

"It will require much argument to convince us that this plan is desirable. It is true that the Senate, being not only a continuing body but indirectly responsible to the people, is so slow of political change that the will of the people, expressed every two years in the election of Representatives, is often nullified by the Senate. But this does not seem to be any reason why the House should be less expressive than it is of prevailing political opinion."

And the *Buffalo Courier*, in a more extended and equally fair article, might be cited to the same purport.

A constitutional scholar who possesses the rare advantage of having lived for many years at the national capital, in familiar and confidential intercourse with the most distinguished statesmen of both parties, without having been in public office himself, and whose name we regretfully withhold at his request, writes:

"I entirely concur with so much of the reasoning of your article as relates to the necessity of modifying the despotic power of the Speaker, and of bringing the meeting of a new Congress into closer contact with each new election for its members. . . . As to the expediency of making the House a permanent body like the Senate, in this respect I confess that I have some demur. Will not such a reformation tend still more to consolidate the power of the legislative branch of the Government—already stronger than the other branches? Will it not make change in Federal policies and Federal laws still more difficult of attainment? The great vice in the present polity is its ultra-conservatism—the fact that institutional means for effecting political changes do not keep pace with social and economic evolution. Will not the proposed reformation make our polity still more conservative?"

On the other hand, we have seen a private letter from Mr. Robert C. Winthrop, who not only is a veteran statesman, but was for ten years a member of the House of Representatives and repeatedly Speaker of the Massachusetts House, in which he says:

"I had read the article in the *Nation* with great interest, and have now read it again and with renewed satisfaction. I should gladly see the first amendment (relating to the inauguration) pass separately and on its own merits. But the second (relating to the House of Representatives) seems to me a great improvement on our present system. I heartily hope you may succeed in getting both adopted."

In presenting the proposed change to our readers, we depicted, illustratively, the House as it is and the Senate as it is in this matter of organization. The reference to the Senate, though merely an illustration which everybody knew something about, has led some correspondents and critics to suppose that we advocated changing the House into a body precisely like the Senate. No writer has, indeed, gone so far as to say that we desired secret sessions, or meant to reduce the number to seventy-six members; but the misapprehension has stopped short only at those points. We referred to the fact that the President *pro tempore* of the Senate is changed with every change of party; but the amendment under consideration will extend neither to the Speakership, nor to any matter of detail. Indeed, the term of the presiding officer of the House is not now regulated by

the Constitution. "The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker," is all that is written concerning the tenure of the office; and, "A Speaker may be removed at the will of the House," says Jefferson's Manual. In other words, the Speaker of to-day holds his office, just as the President pro tempore of the Senate holds his, "at the will of the House."

The end to be kept in view, however, is not the term of the Speaker's office, but his power over and control of the committees. Some thoughtless talk has been indulged in; such as, that in the selection of the Senate committees there is doubtless a friction which the public do not hear and a manipulation which they do not see. Whether there be a friction or not, we neither know nor care—it is a friction which will hurt nobody outside of the Senate Chamber; but concerning the committees of the Senate three things are undeniable: (1) that there is no barter and trade between the presiding officer and persons who wish to control committees; (2) that there is a natural selection of the fittest, whereby the committees are well made for the work they have to do, and the ablest men of the controlling party are at the head; (3) that they are always organized and ready for work, and have their work well in hand. With a continuity of organization in the House, the actual experience of the Senate warrants a belief that the system of natural selection will naturally be adopted. Under the present disjointed system of biennial disorganization and reorganization, the despotic and dangerous power of the Speaker seems inevitable.

It has been said of the Senate that it is further removed from the people than the House. If that means that the Senate is less observant of the public will than the House, it is an error which every year of legislation contradicts. We cannot at the moment recall a single important non-political measure, such as the Presidential Succession Act, the Electoral Count Bill, the National Library measure, in which the Senate has not been years in advance of the House. It must be remembered that the Senate is part of the legislative power, part of the treaty-making power, part of the appointing power. The element of secret sessions, and the "courtesy of the Senate," which this paper has steadfastly opposed and condemned, spring out of the latter powers; but the legislative work of the Senate, considering what slovenly statutory work comes from the House, and the shameful manner in which appropriation bills have been held back, is, as a general rule, well done. Indeed, if there be one legislative body in the world which has been characterized during the last ten or fifteen years by dignity, decorum, freedom, and yet commendable temperateness of debate, and in keeping its own share of the legislative work always in advance of the other house—in short, a body which the intelligent citizens of a civilized country may look upon with reasonable satisfaction—it is the Senate of the United States.

That "continuity of organization" can render dangerous a legislative body half of

whose members will go out of office every year is certainly an extraordinary fallacy. The Long Parliament was a usurpation, because for twelve years and more the people of England could hold no election of members. Organization is nothing more than machinery in working order. Dislocating the engine will not lessen the power of the engineer. No nation is ever going to be enslaved by legislators whose term of office is so short-lived as that of our Representatives in Congress. If usurpation comes, it will be the work of the bad and the unprincipled, who can find no instrumentality better fitted for their purpose than an unscrupulous Speaker and an unorganized House. The break between one Congress and another happens now to be an interval of some months, but it is only a few years since Congress was sitting almost continuously. The Thirtieth Congress expired on the 4th of March, 1867, and "the first session of the Fortieth Congress was begun, and held in the city of Washington on the 4th day of March, A. D. 1867." The interval of disorganization, the reflection of the Speaker, Clerk, and other officers, the fresh deal and dicker of committees, did not lessen the power of the dominant party in that House, nor hinder the mad impeachment of the President during the ensuing winter.

In conclusion, we desire to impress upon our readers the simple fact that the constitutional continuity of the House of Representatives means simply continuity of organization; that organization means simply the machinery for doing its proper work; that a new Congress does not mean philosophically or practically the same set of politicians reappearing under a new name, but a new set of members, newly elected, bringing with them a new exposition of the public will; that the proposed amendment will secure two different but desirable results: (1) the unbroken business organization of the House; (2) the annual and immediate appearance of new members whenever they may be needed.

THE BLAIR BILL ONCE MORE.

THE question whether the Federal Government ought to appropriate money from the national Treasury to aid in the support of schools in the States, for the especial benefit of the South, received a thorough discussion while the proposition was before the Fortyninth Congress. The scheme had been urged for some years before, without ever being subjected to careful scrutiny, and the public had inclined to give it a thoughtless approval. But during the early months of 1886 the facts and figures regarding the actual educational condition of the South, which were presented from time to time in the *Evening Post* and *Nation*, caused former supporters of the project to change their views, and resulted in a popular verdict against the bill, so that its failure to pass Congress was generally welcomed. The completeness of this revolution in public sentiment was shown in the most striking way possible by the action of the New Hampshire Legislature last summer. Mr. Blair appealed to the law-

makers of his own State for a resolution of hearty endorsement to serve as a lever in the Fiftieth Congress. The resolution went to the Committee on National Affairs, two-thirds of whom were Republicans, but by a vote of nine to two the Committee reported "inexpedient to legislate," and the greatest efforts of Mr. Blair's friends were required to save him from the humiliation of an adverse majority in the Legislature—a cold "approval" being finally granted, only by a vote of 136 to 127.

As the New Hampshire Senator insists upon being beaten again, it is well to restate the considerations which were urged against his bill two years ago, and to reinforce them with the new objections which have developed in the meantime. The plea for the measure is based upon the statistics of illiteracy furnished by the census of 1880, which showed that in a number of the Southern States nearly or quite half of the voters were unable to read and write. This fact is always presented by advocates of the bill as conclusive evidence that the South must have help from Washington; but, properly understood, it bears a very different aspect. While it is true that in 1880 there were in the South 4,715,395 persons over ten years of age who could not write, 2,961,371, or about two-thirds of the whole number, were men and women over twenty-one years old, who would never go to school if they had a chance. In other words, by far the greater part of the illiteracy which existed in the South in 1880 was hopeless, because by far the greater part of the illiterates were too old to attend school. It is absurd to say that the South in 1888 needs Federal aid to educate her children because in 1880 there were three million grown-up illiterates, born either slaves or "poor whites" of the slavery era.

The vital question is, whether the South is now herself educating her children so that they will not be illiterates when they grow up. Advocates of the Blair bill always insist that it is not, because the South does not have as good schools as cities in the North have. We have heretofore pointed out that the proper comparison is with thinly settled agricultural States, like Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, and have shown that illiteracy has been avoided in these New England States by a school system no better than that which many Southern States already have, and which the others will soon have at their present rate of progress. It was a great surprise to Northern people when we demonstrated that a number of Southern States keep their children in school more days in the year than New Hampshire does hers, but the truth is at last accepted even by New Hampshire, and the Concord *Monitor*, which is generally known as the "organ" of Mr. Blair's colleague, Senator Chandler, last April told its readers that "New Hampshire has less schooling than Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, or Missouri"—to which it should have added Texas and Kentucky, while Florida and two or three others are within a few days of the New Hampshire average. In like manner the *Monitor* might have shown that a larger percentage of the children of school age are en-

rolled in the public schools of some Southern States than in New Hampshire, while even South Carolina, which has the largest proportion of negroes, falls only a trifle behind New Hampshire in this respect.

The latest reports of the Superintendents of Education in the Southern States teem with proofs that outside help is not needed, a few of which must be cited. The average length of the school year in Virginia is already nearly six months, and the Superintendent recommends as perfectly practicable a further extension through the increase of local assessments. In West Virginia the average length is nearly five months, and the Superintendent urges an increase, remarking that "the additional tax for two months would scarcely be felt." In Tennessee the Superintendent reported that "our public-school system is growing in favor with the people," and the Legislature justified his statement by more than doubling the school tax within a month after the Blair bill lapsed by the expiration of the Forty-ninth Congress, while the counties in their turn are doubling the local fund raised for education. In Alabama the Superintendent recites the growth of the system within four years from 4,624 schools with 177,428 pupils and a school fund of \$392,904, to 5,595 schools with 252,967 pupils and a school fund of \$523,353; he says that "our educational facilities must be increased to keep abreast with the material prosperity of the State," and adds that "all know there has been a gratifying increase in the resources of the State during the past few years which requires an increase in the annual appropriation for schools." In Arkansas the Superintendent reports that "we are making rapid progress in our educational interests, and in a few more years Arkansas will stand side by side with the most favored of her sister States in the educational advantages she offers to her children"—a statement which is certainly warranted by the increase between 1883 and 1886 from 2,462 teachers, 112,233 pupils, and \$479,471 expenditure, to 3,691 teachers, 175,935 pupils, and \$866,892 expenditure. In Georgia the Superintendent reported an increase within four years of pupils from 244,197 to 309,594, and of expenditure from \$498,533 to \$723,161, while he showed once more that a small increase in the tax, which could be laid "without unduly burdening the people," would enable the State to keep the schools in operation for six months of the year. In Florida the Superintendent reports that the amount expended upon schools has risen within four years from \$133,260 to \$400,000, while the school year falls only a few days short of New Hampshire and Maine. In Texas the Superintendent reports a steady and rapid advance in the cause of popular education, and insists that "the school term throughout the State should not be less than seven months."

Space will not permit a full presentation for each State of the wonderful progress which has been made in developing the school system of the South within the past few years. The Blair bill was introduced in December, 1881, upon the ground that the South was so "impoverished by the war"

that it could not raise any more money for schools than it was then raising, and that Federal aid ought to be granted for eight years. Six of the eight years have passed; the amount raised for schools has been largely increased in every State, and doubled or trebled in some, while the man who should now talk about the South being "impoverished by the war" would provoke the derision of every self-respecting Southerner. The rigorous test of time has been applied to the plausible pleas which were originally made for the passage of this bill, and their fallacy has been clearly exposed. The South has shown herself able to overcome the difficulties of the situation, and her success is another tribute to American self-reliance. The most satisfactory feature of the matter is the fact that the opposition which has defeated the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" was largely the opposition of self-respecting Southern men, like Senator Butler of South Carolina, who put the case against it most forcibly four years ago, when he said:

"We ought to pause and reflect, for fear that in throwing this large amount of money into the States you will check the effort in those States to develop their own common-school system in their own way. Why, Mr. President, there is no success in life comparable to the success which attends individual effort, none so enduring, none so satisfactory. I would, therefore, be very cautious before I would appropriate money and put it with the States, the effect of which, I am afraid, would be, among others, to induce a very great many men who are now earnestly struggling to build up their own local institutions, to put their hands in their pockets and say: 'The general Government is going to educate everybody—what is the use of any man paying taxes for education?'"

PICTURES AND PICTURE-BUYERS.

A CORRESPONDENT in the West writes, on behalf of some local economists who are just now occupied with the tariff discussion, to ask us whether we set paintings down among the things known as "luxuries," and therefore a fair subject for Custom-house taxation. The question will most probably come up this winter in connection with the 30 per cent. duty which we now levy on the works of foreign artists, and which we believe nobody any longer defends on the ground that it is legitimate protection for native industry against foreign competition. Thirty years ago there were American artists who dreamed of the possibility of making by the aid of the tariff a sort of art vacuum in this country which native talent would fill with a purely and distinctively American school, owing nothing whatever to European precept, spirit, or example. But this dream has for the most part passed away, and American artists have resigned themselves to taking part in the general struggle for distinction and a market without any adventitious aid.

If any are now disposed to rely on the tariff at all, it is rather for protection against the dealers in this country than against professional rivals abroad. They say, and with a good deal of force, that in no country is the dealer so powerful an influence in the picture market as in this, because in none are there so many buyers with long purses who do not

venture to rely on their own judgment in making their purchases. When the time comes in their career, therefore, at which they think it is incumbent on them to fill their houses with works of art, they put themselves unhesitatingly into the hands of an importer, and he generally covers their walls with the products of foreign studios, and, if he allows them to buy American pictures at all, recommends them only for bedrooms and the less frequented parts of the house.

Against this discrimination the human nature in American art naturally revolts, and if the tariff would do anything towards repressing it, we imagine a good many advocates for the duty on foreign pictures would be found among American painters. But as a matter of fact the duty on foreign pictures, although it may in some degree prevent importations being as large as they would be in its absence, has not perceptibly diminished them. The ebb and flow of the American demand for European pictures seems to be more affected by the condition of the stock market than by any other influence known to us. In truth, the ordinary American picture-buyer is rather stimulated than deterred by dearthness. The addition of 30 per cent. to the price is in nine cases out of ten more likely to increase than to cool his ardor. In his own ignorance of the conditions which fix the value of a picture in money, he is apt to defer to the judgment of those who profess to know something about them, and to conclude that their asking a very high price is a sort of confession of the importance of what they have to sell. He does not know, what is literally true, that the picture market now closely resembles the stock market—that it has its bulls and bears and corners, just as Wall Street has, and that dealers not infrequently "sell short" works which they know are held in considerable quantity by a rival, in order to break him down, or "make corners" in works which they know he is seeking, and unload freely on "lambs" from the West works in which their own expectations have been disappointed.

So that, on the whole, the effect of the tariff on the sale of foreign pictures, though doubtless considerable, can hardly be said to be perceptible. It keeps foreign pictures out to some extent, but we do not know to what extent. The only aid in approximating to an estimate of it is to be found in the large number of counterfeits of distinguished European artists which are to be found all over the country. A French connoisseur came here a few years ago to catalogue, if possible, the more valuable works of French art to be found in this country in private collections and public galleries. He had not gone very far, however, before he came on forgeries, enough to astonish him, of the more readily imitable works of such painters as Corot and Rousseau. In fact, we have ourselves been assured by a leading American painter that there is in one of the suburbs of New York a Corot factory, from which you can obtain works of this master of any size or in any quantity you please—either by the dozen or the single copy. That the

tariff fosters frauds of this sort is very certain. The smuggler and counterfeiter always follow close behind the custom-house inspector.

The objection to the picture duty which American artists, we imagine, feel most keenly, is the discredit it inflicts on us in the eyes of foreign nations, which contain a large proportion of the public whose opinions they value. We are the first civilized country which has ever sought to make difficult the importation of works of art. All the leading governments of Christendom spend money in buying pictures for public galleries, and encourage by every means in their power the introduction of them from abroad by private individuals, both for their own greater glory and for the cultivation of the popular taste in an important field of human expression. We enjoy the amazing distinction of being the only people to put pictures on a level with cotton goods, and pig iron, and raw wool. Every American who occupies himself either with literature or art or science, or with the cultivation of the ideal in any field of human observation, is, of course, compelled to hang his head for shame when he is asked to explain this to a foreigner. But the reason why he hangs his head for shame in talking to the foreigner is also the reason why he is puzzled and embarrassed when he is called on to explain to the ordinary Congressman why taxes on works of art are all wrong. He cannot make the Congressman understand the part which art plays in the higher development of the race any more than he can make the foreigner understand the Congressman's indifference to it. If a man sees no educational value in art, one can hardly reveal it to him by any sort of exposition. It is, like color-blindness or the absence of ear for music, a difficulty which can only be overcome by faith. That is to say, people who see nothing in pictures, whether old or new, must trust that immense body of the best men and women of all ages who have treated art as "the flower of humanity."

The accumulation of first-rate pictures in America, in spite of all difficulties, is very rapid. They are, it is true, luxuries, in the sense that only rich men can buy them. But they are luxuries which rich men cannot consume, which delight the eye and cultivate the taste and imagination of millions who could not afford to buy them, and in a vast number of cases they find their way in the long run into public galleries and become to all intents and purposes the property of the people. We can hardly check this tendency by any import duty, however heavy. The money the present duty brings in is a mere bagatelle, so that in levying it we accomplish little beyond making our legislation seem barbarous.

THE CHACE COPYRIGHT BILL.

SENATOR CHACE of Rhode Island has again presented to the Senate his International Copyright Bill, with no change in the text except that the date in the enacting clause is set forward one year to July 1, 1888. We

have before summarized the provisions of this bill, and now desire only to revert to the clause which prohibits the importation of any foreign edition of a book reprinted in the United States. Although the two measures proposed to secure copyright to British authors which, for the moment, are attracting the largest share of public attention, both originate in Philadelphia, they are diametrically opposed in one respect. While Mr. Smith's proposed bill is designed to give the utmost latitude to competing editions, upon the plea that in this way the lowest price will be secured to the reader, the effect of the prohibition-of-importation clause in Mr. Chace's bill is absolutely to remove competition. Should this latter bill, as it is now worded, become law, American readers may find themselves obliged to choose either to go without the book, or to pay for the American reprint of Tennyson's next poem double or treble the price of the original English edition. This is no fancy illustration. Whenever an English author of established popularity shall announce a new work, American publishers will hasten to compete for the privilege of issuing it in America, and the bidder offering the highest price to the author will, of course, secure the right to republish. Having thus obtained the entire American market for his edition, with the absolute prohibition of importation enacted in the bill barring out any and every competing foreign edition, the acute publisher will very naturally hasten to recoup himself for his outlay by demanding from American readers the highest obtainable price for the work thus secured.

This is so plainly the practical result of the legislation proposed that it is with considerable curiosity one turns to see what the projectors and defenders of this bill have to say in defence of this stipulation. The arguments made are threefold: (1) That it is "an invariable rule in all countries where copyright exists"; (2) that it is necessary to enforce the requirement of the American manufacture of each book copyrighted; and (3) that the "apparently harmless concession" of an importation of copies of the authorized English edition by the author or copyright proprietor "would overthrow the whole design and purport of the bill."

Concerning number one, we have before pointed out at some length that so far is it from being the "invariable rule in all countries" to prohibit the importing of the authorized original edition, that it is entirely without precedent in the copyright legislation of any and all countries; only surreptitious reprints are thus prohibited. As regards the second reason advanced, section two of the bill distinctly requires that, in order for the foreign author to secure any copyright at all in this country, he must, within three months after recording the title of his book, deposit with the Librarian of Congress "two copies of the best edition of the same printed in the United States"; and if he does not, he remains in exactly the same position as regards an American copyright, after the enactment of the proposed law, as that which he now occupies. It is, therefore, but a transparent

pretence to claim that the prohibition clause is necessary to secure American manufacture. At number three, however, we arrive at the true reason for the insertion of this clause. Instead of being, according to reason number one, simply an article usual in all similar legislation, we discover from Mr. Henry C. Lea's words, quoted above, that the enactment of this article is necessary to secure the real purpose of the entire bill.

Mr. Chace states in his report that the present tariff on books of 25 per cent., added to what is repeatedly referred to by Mr. Lea and himself as the high price of the original editions, would not afford sufficient "protection" to the American manufacturers engaged in the production of books. In other words, the importation of the "expensive original editions," even with the addition of a duty of one-quarter of the English price, would produce a competition detrimental to the interests of the American republishers. It is necessary, therefore, to enact a law which will allow the American reprinter unhindered opportunity to add as much per cent. to the English price as will enable him to meet the additional cost of manufacturing the book in this country (which, according to Mr. Chace, "just about balances the amount of duties imposed"), and, in addition, secure to himself a handsome profit. And this is very evidently "the whole design and purport of the bill," which would, as Mr. Lea says, be thwarted were the prohibition-of-import clause removed. As the interests of the English author and the American reprinter are identical, so far as obtaining the highest possible price for the reprinted book is concerned, it is easy to agree with Mr. Chace that they "will both be protected," but it is by no means so easy to "perceive that the interests of the American reader will suffer no detriment" by giving the first two parties an absolute protection from competition.

During the copyright agitation of 1871-72 the publishers and others of Philadelphia held a meeting in January of the latter year, at which Mr. Henry Carey Baird presided and Mr. Henry C. Lea was present. Fearing that the Copyright Bill requiring American manufacture which was then urged upon Congress might become a law, a resolution opposing it was passed upon the ground that its enactment would "enable the foreign author and his assignee in this country, by an absolute monopoly in the production, to fix the price of his book without fear of competition." At that time, it should be borne in mind, there was no question of giving the reprinter such absolute monopoly as would result from cutting off the competition of the imported edition, and the remonstrance Mr. Lea then sanctioned would, therefore, apply with much greater force to the bill he now urgently advocates. A further resolution, however, setting out that this obnoxious monopoly would fall into the hands of the "great capitalists of the Atlantic seaboard," *i. e.*, the publishers of New York and Boston, gives rise to the conjecture that it was this possible danger to Philadelphia reprinters which was the real grievance.

PROTECTION TO LIQUOR-DEALING.

THE Excise Board presents both a majority and minority report to Mayor Hewitt, in making suggestions, in compliance with his request, for changes in the law. The majority, Messrs. Andrews and Von Glahn, are opposed to high license and in favor of licensing houses instead of persons, and of issuing licenses to "keep open all night to liquor-dealers in certain portions of the city, in the restaurants, hotels, and drinking places about the markets, at the ferries, railway stations, about the printing-offices, and at certain points on the main thoroughfares." They would also license certain places to keep open on Sunday during specified hours, for the accommodation of that large portion of the community who take beer or wine as part of their daily diet. On the number of drinking places they would place no restriction whatever, and as they would only charge a "moderate fee" for the privilege of carrying on the business in any particular house, and as they admit that "the rental value of places licensed is greater for that than for any other business as a rule," they must contemplate an indefinite expansion and cultivation of the business by all property-holders desirous of securing an unusually high rent for their premises.

Mr. Woodman, the minority, on the other hand, would restrict the number of licenses granted to one to 500 of population, which would cut down the number of drinking places now existing in New York from 8,000 to 3,000, and would make the license fee very high, and add imprisonment to the fine for violations of the law, and would in all cases compel the landlord of the premises on which liquor-dealing was carried on to go on the applicant's bond, if he were not himself the applicant. Both reports are worth careful reading as the expression of the two great divisions of public sentiment about the liquor business. Mr. Woodman represents those who think that

"the Excise Law was not made, and should not be administered, in the interest of the liquor-seller. It was made not to promote, but to restrict the traffic; not to protect the seller in his business, but to protect the public against the inevitable evil results of that trade. So inevitable and so evil are these results that the tendency of public opinion and of excise legislation in all civilized countries for many years past has been towards severer curtailment and control of the liquor traffic. In several States of our Union it has culminated, through popular vote, in absolute prohibition.

"Every new step, therefore, should be towards further restriction and repression. The saloon, as it has developed in this city, is a gigantic evil in the vastness of its proportions and in the character it too often bears. It is sapping the strength and endangering the safety of the commonwealth. I believe it to be in the highest degree unwise to do anything to enlarge its scope or strengthen its grip upon the community."

Messrs. Andrews and Von Glahn are not equally explicit in stating what their attitude towards the liquor traffic is, but it comes out clearly enough incidentally through their recommendations. They evidently consider it a source of comfort and convenience to a large body of the population, liable to abuse certainly, and therefore to be regulated, but in no way to be discouraged or frowned upon. Obstacles are

not to be opposed to the business. The conduct of it is to be made safe and convenient; the license is to be transmissible to heirs and executors; the applicant is not to be required to reside in the county in which he sells liquor; licenses are to be issued for short terms for special occasions; connection with theatres and places of amusement is to be permitted; there are to be no prohibited hours or days for all drinking places. In fact, the only condition worth mention which they would attach to permission to carry on a liquor store, is the condition which is attached to permission to carry on a bakery or dairy lunch-room in all civilized communities—that is, abstinence from disorder and indecency. For, most assuredly, if it appeared that bakeries or dairy lunch-rooms were the favorite resort of bad characters of both sexes, and noted for the number of fights and murders which occurred in them, and for the number of persons who issued forth from them to commit assaults in the streets, or go home to "pound" their wives and smash their own furniture, bakers and milk-dealers would be carefully licensed and looked after by the police.

Now, whatever be the merit of this assumption of Messrs. Andrews and Von Glahn, it is certainly not the one which now commands general acceptance, or on which the bulk of this community will any longer allow liquor legislation to be based. Whatever change is made in the law in this State must be, and we believe will be, made in the direction indicated by Mr. Woodman. In other words, public opinion demands, all over the country, with increasing force, that since liquor-dealing cannot be abolished, it must be discredited; that entrance to it must be made difficult; that the number of those engaged in it must be restricted; that liquor-dealers must, by hook or by crook, be ousted from their present influence in our politics; that all regulation of the traffic must openly recognize and provide for the fact that it is by far the most fruitful source of crime and disease and poverty known to the modern world. There is not a civilized country to-day which is not dealing with this problem on these lines. All thoughtful men are everywhere seeking to make liquor-dealing an uncomfortable and disreputable calling. This tendency may be temporarily baffled here and there, but its triumph is certain in the near future, and no flummery about "reputable persons conducting an orderly place in a moderate way," or about "honest, thrifty, law-abiding" drinkers, will arrest its progress.

MUTATIONS OF THE BOOK TRADE IN GERMANY.

THE decadence of the book trade, outside of our largest cities, has been much discussed by those immediately interested, but it is to be feared that the reading public fails to perceive that the disappearance of the country book-shop implies a corresponding narrowing of the area of literary culture. In this connection it is interesting to learn (from an article in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for November) that the same result is threatened in Germany, though, the German trade suffers from only one of the evils

which afflict the American. These are three in number: first, the dying out of the habit of buying books as part of the furniture, as it were, of the homes of all families of even moderate wealth and cultivation. This is chiefly owing to the enormously increased taste for bric-à-brac, engravings, artistic furnishings, and the like, the gratification of which absorbs the margin of income formerly spent in providing well-bound sets of the *Waverley Novels*, *Littell's Living Age*, the *Atlantic Monthly*, and the newest volumes of Huxley and Lowell. Want of space forbids our discussing this point in detail, and we therefore refer those interested to Mr. Henry Holt's New Haven address of last year. Another evil is the revolution in values—that is, in the instinctive consciousness of what one ought to pay for a book, caused by the existence of the twenty-cent libraries. The literary democracy which these have established has destroyed the aristocracy of good editions and authors' monopoly, which, apparently, had nothing to support it except custom and tradition.

These two causes would probably have been sufficient to limit the bookseller's stock to "libraries" and a few gift-books for the holidays, and this limitation is fatal to his prosperity, because the margin of profit on the "libraries" and on school-books is very small, while the gift-book season is short, and the danger of being left with damaged or *passé* stock is great. But that which, in the opinion of the trade, is the greatest evil, and the one from which, in a different form, the Germans also suffer, is the underselling, by which a few dealers are able to profit at the expense, and eventual ruin, of the majority. This is the "bazaar" nuisance, the system under which publishers sell quantities of their most salable books, at the same or greater discount, to the miscellaneous shops modelled on the *Bonne Marché* or the "Universal Provider," one, at least, of which is now to be found in every considerable town, and which use books, along with dentifrices and soaps, as decoys to entice buyers of their other wares. Nor is the influence of these shops confined to their immediate neighborhood, for some of them do a large business by post.

The same thing, it appears, is going on in Germany, and is ruining that particular feature of the German book-trade which, according to our *Jahrbücher* friend, is the envy of foreigners, and which has undoubtedly, as he says, largely helped to make Germany the country in which learning is geographically most widely distributed. By means of it, the scholar who lives in the remotest country town enjoys the same advantages, as regards current literature, as the dweller in the largest city. He has only to give his local bookseller the name of any book which he possibly may find valuable, and by return of post it is on his table. He may keep it several months, and after making any useful extract, return it without compensation for the loan. Two-thirds of the books he receives are thus, at the end of a year, returned to the publisher, and the bookseller makes his living out of the profit on the third book, which is bought. The rural scholar is thus never obliged to buy a pig in a poke—he has ample opportunity to learn, by examination, whether a work is indispensable, and to have the use of the larger number which, though not of permanent value to him, are of great temporary use. Another advantage of the system is that it implies the presence in every little town of a bookseller who is obliged to anticipate, to a large extent, the wants of his circle of customers, and hence to be a man of considerable intelligence, if not a scholar, him-

self, and whose shop, in a small way, is a "literary centre."

But some clever Berlin dealers a few years since conceived the idea of offering publishers to take at one time a large quantity of each book on which they were sure of a large sale, the publishers, in consideration of the large number sold, to give a discount of 40 or 50 instead of the usual 25 or 33 per cent., at which rate they were able to sell the book at about the same price which it cost the small bookseller. By this arrangement publishers and dealers alike profited, but the old-fashioned retailer, of course, came to grief. Two years ago the publishers discovered that this was a short-sighted policy—that their sales through the large dealers in the end were smaller than they had been under the old plan, and 600 of them agreed to have no dealings with firms which dealt on this principle. On September 25, 1887, this boycott was strengthened by a resolution of the Book-dealers' Union hereafter to regard every dealer who gave a discount of more than 5 per cent. as coming under the ban. But though the local bookseller in Germany, thanks to these sharp measures, will die a more lingering death than his American brother, his doom seems to be just as certain.

The resolution of the Union, which we mentioned, has been unfavorably commented upon by the press, and the *Jahrbücher* article is largely a reply to these criticisms. The writer maintains that the prices of serious works are low enough, but admits that those asked for school-books and belles-lettres are too high. In defending these positions, the (anonymous) writer gives some interesting statistics, which, as the *Jahrbücher* is issued by a highly respected firm of printers and publishers, are, we suppose, trustworthy. Incidentally the exports and imports of Germany are compared with those of France, the result of which, in view of their political relations, is highly surprising. In 1885 France imported books, engravings, etc., to the value of \$6,400,000, and exported \$9,000,000 worth. But taking the trade with Germany by itself, the proportion was reversed, the importation being \$3,600,000, the exportation only \$765,000. The total German trade for 1886 was—imports \$6,000,000, exports \$15,530,000.

We get, too, some light on the pecuniary profits of authorship in Germany, though the writer apologizes to his brethren for telling tales out of school. It seems, then, that the cost of putting on the market a strictly scholarly work, of which the number that may be sold will not exceed 500, and assuming the author to be neither unknown nor famous, is: Composition and presswork for an 8vo volume of 320 pages, 500 copies, \$175, paper \$41.25, *author's compensation*, \$125, incidental expenses \$33.75; total \$375. Moreover, the author of a work of more popular character, which may be expected to sell 1,000 copies, or of a novel which sells 1,500 copies, gets no more for his labor; but the compiler of a school-book which is likely to sell 5,000 copies, gets the fabulous sum of \$150! The insignificance of the sums paid the authors of works of scholarship and fiction might be accounted for on the ground that so many works of these classes are published with a view to benefit the author's reputation rather than his pocket; but compilers of school-books do not usually work for "glory."

THE YELLOWSTONE PARK AS A FOREST RESERVATION.

WASHINGTON, January 2, 1888.

Of the varied beauties of the Yellowstone Park much has been said in praise. The

splendor of the Grand Cañon, the grandeur of the Lake and of those scientific curiosities, the geysers and hot springs, have been described over and over again until every one is more or less familiar with the natural marvels of this wonderland. Now that the once famous pink and white terraces on the shores of Rotomahana in New Zealand have ceased to exist, the similar deposits in the Yellowstone Park stand unrivalled. Notwithstanding all that has been written, based upon sentimental considerations, in favor of a maintenance of the Park by the general Government, the most forcible argument for its preservation is an economic one far outweighing all others in importance. It is one which has received but slight attention outside of a narrow circle of the friends of the Park who realize the true value of the region.

The object of first importance in maintaining the Park is the preservation of its forests. Forest preservation is rightfully attracting increased attention in all parts of the country, and it is now very generally admitted that a rigid enforcement of the proper restrictions in the cutting of timber is demanded for the public welfare. Owing to the many conflicting interests in the more settled communities, additional protection by legislation is by no means a simple problem. Nowhere is this better shown than in the struggle in New York State to preserve the timber of the Adirondacks against the encroachment of lumbermen.

The Park is a natural reservoir admirably adapted by its topographical structure for the storage of water. No region of equal area in the heart of the Rocky Mountains presents so many favorable conditions for receiving, storing, and distributing a liberal water supply. For the preservation of this water the dense forest which covers this region is of incalculable value. The central portion of the Park is a broad, elevated volcanic plateau between 7,000 and 8,500 feet above sea level, with an average elevation of about 8,000 feet; it is accidented by broad depressed basins and scored by deep gorges and narrow valleys. Surrounding it on the south, east, north, and northwest, are high peaks and mountain ridges rising from 2,000 to 4,000 feet above the general level of the enclosed table-land. Across this plateau from the southeast to the northwest, with a very sinuous course, runs the Continental divide, separating the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Pacific. Several large bodies of water, notably Yellowstone, Shoshone, Lewis, and Heart Lakes, form such characteristic features on both sides of this divide, that the country has deservedly received the appellation of the Lake region of the Park. Hundreds of smaller lakes occupy irregular depressions either in the lava flows or in shallow basins of glacial origin high up in the neighboring mountains. Scattered over the plateau, in striking contrast with the greater part of the Rocky Mountains, occur numerous ponds, marshes, and meadows, which hold very considerable amounts of water throughout the greater part of the year. More than 3,500 thermal springs bring up their waters from below to swell the surface flows, while innumerable cold springs coming out from beneath the rocks add their share to swell the current.

Careful observation of plateau, mountain, and valley shows that about 84 per cent. of the Park region is forest-clad. The bare portions of the Park are mainly areas above the timber line, steep mountain slopes, and wet marshy bottoms. The forest is essentially coniferous. A few groves of aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) add brilliancy to the autumnal foliage, but are so insignificant that from an economic point of view they may be discarded.

Quite two-thirds of the trees are what are known as black pine (*Pinus Murrayana*), and one may travel for miles over the gravelly ridges of the plateau without encountering any other species. On moist ground at high elevations, and where the snows lie later in the season, this species gradually gives way to the balsam (*Abies subalpina*) and the spruce (*Pinus Engelmanni*). Over large areas, of course, the three species occur more or less mingled. In a few favored localities the statelier tree, the red fir (*Pseudotsuga Douglassi*), is conspicuous by its size and vigor. The black pine rarely attains any great size, trees more than two feet in diameter being exceptional, while over considerable areas they are so diminutive as to be locally known as "lodge-pole" pine. The young forest is generally made up of shapely, graceful trees, but the maturer growth is not specially attractive. The charm of the forest is found in the natural groupings and park-like character of the trees in the more open country, many of those on the mountain slopes being of exquisite beauty. For grandeur and imposing appearance they are not, however, to be compared with those of the Sierra Nevada or Cascade Ranges.

Precipitation of moisture throughout the arid region of the Far West is governed in part by mountain mass and in part by the great altitude of single ridges. Across the Park plateau and the Absaroka Range to the eastward the country is unsurpassed in average elevation by any area of equal extent, and is so situated as to form one of the storm-centres of the northern Rocky Mountains. The moisture-laden winds coming up from the southwest precipitate rain and snow upon the plateau and the western slope of the Absaroka Range, innumerable streams bringing the water from the mountains back into the Park. In consequence, the climate of the region is exceptional, the amount of snow and rainfall being higher and the mean annual temperature lower than over the adjacent country. Unlike the greater part of the Rocky Mountains, heavy rains occur frequently through the summer, and snow-storms are of common occurrence any time between September and May, the snows lying upon the ground well into midsummer. The region is one of the nation's grandest reservoirs, sending its waters thousands of miles to both oceans. A closer examination of this water-supply shows its preservation to be a question of vast economic interest. Two rivers, the Yellowstone and Snake, carry off the greater part of these waters; the former draining more than one-half the area of the Park, and the latter the entire western side of the divide. Yellowstone Lake, the great reservoir for the river which gives its name to the Park, is a body of water of great beauty, measuring twenty miles in length, with a breadth across its greatest expanse of fifteen miles. It has a very irregular outline, with an indented shore of nearly one hundred miles, and an area of one hundred and twenty-one square miles. Not only is the Yellowstone by many times the largest lake in North America at so high an elevation above sea level (7,741 feet), but it ranks among the first in the world at high altitudes. Upon the western side of the divide, less than six miles from the Yellowstone, and separated from it by a ridge not more than two hundred feet in height, lie Shoshone and Lewis Lakes; the former with an area of twelve square miles, and the latter four and one-half square miles. Heart Lake, at the eastern base of Mt. Sheridan, measures three square miles. These reservoirs pour their waters into the Snake, which also finds its source near the southeast corner of the Park.

In the autumn of 1886, with a view of obtaining some data upon the amount of discharge, the largest bodies of water were accurately measured. Not only was the time selected the driest period of the year, but all lakes and streams stood at a lower level than at any time during the previous five years. Yellowstone Lake stood twenty inches below the high-water mark of early summer. The measurements may be said, therefore, to have been taken at the minimum discharge. Measured just below the outlet of the lake, the discharge of the Yellowstone River was found to be 1,525 cubic feet per second, or, in other words, 34,000,000 imperial gallons per hour. The outflows from Shoshone, Lewis, and Heart Lakes combined yielded 104 cubic feet per second. The Lamar, Firehole, Gibbon, and Madison Rivers were gauged, and careful estimates made of the Gallatin and Falls Rivers, based upon the size and flow of the streams and the area of the country drained. According to estimates of Dr. William Hallock of the United States Geological Survey, who kindly undertook the gauging of the streams, it was found that the minimum discharge was equal to one cubic foot per second per square mile over an area somewhat more than 4,000 square miles, and that the amount of water running into the Park and leaving it through the five main drainage channels would make a river five feet deep and one hundred and ninety feet wide, with a current of three miles per hour. While this may not indicate a large supply as compared with certain highly favored areas, yet it is for the arid region of the West an exceptional and excessive amount.

In an arid and sparsely timbered country and one of unequally distributed rainfall, forests and moisture maintain reciprocal relations. Experience has shown in Europe, and unfortunately already in America, the injurious effect of disafforesting a country near the headwaters of large rivers. One instance will suffice to illustrate this protecting influence of the forest. The report of the recent Forestry Commission of the State of New York says, speaking of the sources of the Hudson River, "that the summer flow of the Adirondack rivers has decreased within the memory of men now living from 30 to 50 per cent. Many of the small streams which a quarter of a century ago were abundantly supplied with water during the entire summer are now dry during many months."

Remove the forests from the sources of the Yellowstone and Snake, and the region would become a barren waste. The snows, under the scorching rays of the sun, would rapidly disappear, and early spring freshets and floods, carrying devastation before them, would strip the rocks bare of the meagre soil with which they are now covered. Under the influence of the forests the soil and vegetation are protected, which in turn act as a sponge, regulating the flow and slowly supplying the springs and streams. The climatic benefits derived from this forest-protected region can scarcely be overestimated. From the cool, wet surface of this broad storehouse of water, the dry winds coming from the West absorb immense quantities of moisture, which is again precipitated over the agricultural and grazing lands to the eastward. Not only should the present reservation be carefully guarded, but the area of the Park should be enlarged to the east and south, so as to take in a dense forest-region useless for agricultural purposes and destitute of mining resources. It embraces a rough and mountainous country abounding in streams, the real sources and feeders of Snake River, Yellowstone River and Lake.

The proposed increase extends the boundaries twenty-five miles to the eastward and nine miles to the southward of the present ill-defined limits, which were established at a time when the region had been but little explored. By this enlargement, not only the entire western slope of the Absaroka Range, with its mountain torrents flowing into the Park, but the timberlands near the heads of streams which run eastward (the waters of which drain into the Big Horn, an affluent to the Yellowstone), will fall within the protected area. To the southward, on the opposite side of the Continental divide, the country, although less rugged, is equally well supplied with streams, springs, and lakes, whose waters uniting make a broad deep river of the Snake before it fairly leaves the mountains for the plain below.

A proposition looking to the enlargement of the National Park has already been brought before the present Congress by Senator Vest of Missouri. No obstacles exist to-day against for ever setting apart this additional territory adjacent to the Park. If left alone, it will soon be invaded by the lumberman, charcoal-burner, and railway-tie cutter, the advance guard of a rapidly increasing population. The preservation of the Park is a necessity to the nation, but to no part of it more than to the Territories of Dakota, Montana, and Wyoming.

ARNOLD HAGUE.

CHAMBER AND PRESIDENT IN FRANCE.

PARIS, December 13, 1887.

THE third French Republic has already had four Presidents. The first three retired voluntarily before the end of their terms. M. Thiers resigned his power, in a moment of anger, in the hope that the Constituent Assembly would recall him immediately. Marshal MacMahon was protected by the constitutional laws enacted soon after his accession to office; he was irresponsible, and could play the part of a constitutional king. But when he dissolved the Chamber, with the consent of the Senate, in accordance with these new constitutional laws, the general elections were hostile to his Cabinet. He remained, however, a little longer in power, with M. Dufaure as Prime Minister; he might have remained to the end of his term if he had been willing to play exactly the part which is played in constitutional monarchies by the sovereigns, since the Constitution under which we live places the Presidential power above all parties. The Marshal could not persuade himself to obey in everything the dictation of his Ministers; he revolted when he was asked to exclude from active service in the army some of his old friends and comrades. The soldier was stronger in him than the President; he resigned, and M. Grévy was elected in his place. The new Constitution was this time put fairly on its trial. M. Grévy affected to take no part whatever in the politics of the day; he uttered no opinions, he seemed to have no opinion; he merely watched the Chamber of Deputies, and gave the power of forming a Cabinet to whoever could dispose momentarily of the majority of the Chambers. The struggle for power became very fierce, and the Cabinets were very short-lived. Every man was tried in his turn; the President seemed to live in a higher sphere. His retired life, his solitude, helped to surround him with a certain halo. He was thought to be a safe, prudent, shrewd man, who could use men at his will, who remained calm amid the conflict of passions, and he was especially credited for his adherence to a policy of peace, though he allowed the expeditions of Tunis and of Tonquin to take place. At the end of his first term, he expressed a desire to be

re-elected, and this desire was immediately obeyed by the Chambers, though he was becoming old, and there were already some men anxious to obtain his inheritance.

When M. Grévy was re-elected, nobody could have the slightest doubt that he would quietly end his second term, if he lived long enough. But fate had decided otherwise. I will not enter here into a painful analysis of the incidents which determined him to resign and to abandon an office which he might have kept five years longer. I will only examine the question from a constitutional point of view. The term "Presidential crisis" has been often pronounced in France in the past two months, and nobody seems to have felt its impropriety very much. People have used it as naturally, as they do the term ministerial crisis. A change of Ministers seems as natural an incident as a change of weather; a change of Presidents ought to be quite another thing. According to the Constitution, or rather to our constitutional laws (for we have, properly speaking, no Constitution), the President can only be removed from his office in case he commits acts which go under the name of high treason. There is nothing in the constitutional laws which gives the Chamber of Deputies the means to remove the President from the Presidential chair; but what have we seen in the case of M. Grévy? We have seen what can only be called a ministerial strike. M. Grévy offered the Premiership to one after another of the public men who are in the Chamber of Deputies, after this Chamber had upset the Rouvier Cabinet; one after another, these public men refused to undertake the formation of a new Cabinet. The Chamber of Deputies openly, distinctly, refused to give Ministers to the President.

There remained the Senate. Unable to govern with the Chamber, M. Grévy could go to the Senate, and as the constitutional laws do not give him personally the right of dissolution, he could ask the Senate to come to his help and grant him the permission to dissolve a Chamber of Deputies which refused him the means of governing. An appeal to the people, in such a case, seemed the proper remedy, and the only remedy. M. Grévy did not send a message to the Senate, and he made a mistake in not doing so, as, in such a crisis, everything must be made public. He contented himself with conversing with the President of the Senate and with some of his friends. The Senate, which is haunted with the memory of the 16th of May (when a dissolution was granted to Marshal MacMahon), which is also afraid of the Chamber of Deputies, and anxious to prolong its own existence, which at times is threatened by the Radical party, did not in this case defend its own prerogative and the prerogative of the President. There was hardly any struggle, any discussion. M. Grévy was made to understand at once that the Senate was not disposed to allow him the right to order general elections. It thus happened that though the Constitution makes him irresponsible, and gives him the right to form at his will responsible Cabinets, the President found himself placed in the impossibility of accomplishing the duties of his office. He was like an animal placed under the pneumatic pump, who dies for want of air. Irresponsible in theory, he became responsible in practice, and not even responsible for his own faults—for faults which he had not himself committed.

Those who still care for constitutional law must see that a dangerous example has been given. Let us leave aside the person of M. Grévy, and let us talk only of the Presidential power. The Chamber of Deputies has learned

by what method and by what means it can dispose of a President almost as easily as it does of a Cabinet. The leaders of the various groups have nothing to do but to form a passive coalition; they can oppose their *non-possumus* to the President almost the day after his election. The Chamber of Deputies has learned, also, that the Presidential power does not find in the Senate a sufficient support. The present drift of our institutions is therefore markedly towards the convention system—the direct and absolute government of one chamber.

The Presidential power, so essential to the stability of the republican government, could only regain its importance if it was confided to one of those remarkable men who are a power in themselves, and who have an innate faculty for the government of men. M. Thiers may be cited as one of those men. He was capable of using any constitution so as to obtain the maximum of power. But the men of his type are rare. M. Carnot, who has been chosen by the Congress of Versailles as the successor of M. Grévy, was chosen for his negative rather than for his positive qualities. It was because the two fractions of the Republican party, which go under the name of Opportunists and Radicals, could not unite on the name of M. Ferry or of M. de Freycinet that they chose a third candidate. M. Carnot was elected by the unanimous vote of the Republicans of the two Chambers, but this unanimity itself shows that his personality was not very well marked, and that both parties expected to find in him an obedient instrument.

The division, which had ceased for a day, or, to speak more correctly, for an hour, became apparent as soon as M. Carnot attempted to form a Ministry. As he had been elected by all the Republicans, he attempted to satisfy them all, and to form a Cabinet of what is called Republican concentration—a singularly ill-chosen word, since, when you mix wine and water, you cannot be said to concentrate the wine or the water. M. Carnot tried, in his turn, every man in the Chamber, and spent ten days at the Élysées conferring with the parliamentary leaders and chiefs of groups. He took notes, and studied the situation with the exactness and method of a pupil of the Polytechnic School and of an engineer. Last night he finally succeeded in getting a Cabinet. The attempt made upon the life of M. Ferry in the lobbies of the Chamber of Deputies probably helped to hasten the solution. It was high time that the crisis should come to an end. The Radical press had inflamed the public mind, and the wretched man who fired at Ferry was incited to his crime by the bitter denunciations and ravings of the revolutionary party.

We have now a Ministry, as we have a President, and the fever may subside. The budget has to be voted; the new year is coming with its customary "grève des confiseurs." But the late events have left behind them a bitter and an ominous lesson. M. Carnot is known to be an upright, honest man; he is, no doubt, animated by the best intentions. He belongs to a republican dynasty, if the word may be used, and his very name is strength to the Republic. But he finds the Presidential power weakened, deprived of its prerogative, humbled, and almost impotent; he finds the Republican party split into two sections which are becoming more and more irreconcilable, as one of those sections is becoming allied to the communistic and anarchical elements of the population of the great cities. The walls of Paris have been covered with red placards signed with the names of the surviving leaders of the Commune of 1871. M. Rochefort, during the Presidential crisis, was a power in Paris. The Municipal Council re-

ceived deputations from all the anarchical societies, and sent deputations to Versailles; it was all ready to proclaim the Commune if M. Ferry had been elected by Congress. It is idle to speak of "concentration" in the face of such demonstrations. No government would be possible if a handful of agitators, followed by a drunken mob, could dictate its will to the legislative power and appoint the executive power.

The present Chamber is doomed. It can neither give sufficient strength to the Executive power, nor can it reduce the revolutionary minority of the country to its natural insignificance. It has diminished the Presidential power, it has increased the danger of Communism. Sooner or later it will have to be dissolved, and the Senate will be forced to consent to its dissolution.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The President's message has already done the country a great service, even though its recommendations should be successfully opposed for a time. It calls into action a large class of cultivated men who had become disgusted with politics, and who were threatened with paralysis of all patriotic feeling. This condition of things constitutes a danger not less grave than the financial and commercial "condition" which it is sought to relieve. A few of these men, to be sure, have expressed their discontent with the low standards of the existing political parties, and, though few, they have already exerted a powerful influence. But many who naturally belonged with the "Mugwumps" or "Independents" took no active part, and did not even care to vote in the last Presidential election.

The late message has cleared the air, and one of the surprises of the next Presidential campaign is to be the number of cultivated men who will resume their functions as citizens. To rouse a large body of honest and well-informed citizens to exercise their rights, and to stir their patriotic feeling with a sense that it is once more worth while to consider the public good, and to strive to promote it—this is a service second to none rendered by any President since Lincoln. MILLS WHITTLESEY.

LAWRENCEVILLE, N. J., December 24, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A general observer of political events might readily come to the conclusion that the voters and press of this country were divided into hostile camps, one composed of the friends of the President and the other of the adherents of Mr. Blaine. For the nonce, personal following seems to have taken the place of party ties, and the question is, not whether you are a Democrat or Republican, but whether you are a Cleveland man or a Blaine man. This state of affairs has had its immediate origin in the recent message of the President. Whether or not he intended to announce a policy of his own, such has been the result of his recommendations to Congress.

Never before in the history of the country (as far as the writer knows) has a message of the President been met, before the ink was scarcely dry, by a counter expression of views from the candidate whom he had defeated. Are publications of personal opinions, in the nature of pronouncements, by leaders of parties who more or less have control of party machinery, to take the place of platforms made by national conventions? If this is to be the case, our country

may soon find itself on a level with South American republics, and be governed by a dictator.

If the politicians of the country rally to the support of this or that man as embodying the supreme intelligence of the country, let the voters of each party unite in choosing discreet and able men as their unpledged delegates to their respective national conventions, who will set forth in the platforms the distinctive principles of each party, and nominate men who will worthily represent those principles.

Yours truly,
TALBOT J. ALBERT.
BALTIMORE, December 27, 1887.

HOW IS THE TARIFF TO BE MODIFIED?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am greatly interested in your clear and elementary articles on the tariff question. With free-trade education and proclivities, I am, nevertheless, in the iron business. You often refer to the iron trade. Would you object to giving a few plain answers to problems that are presented to any one in my branch of trade, taking a practical view of the situation?

(1.) I want to know what the President, Mr. Carlisle, and your editor mean when you advocate a reduction of revenues that will prevent a surplus. You oppose abolition of internal revenue, and therefore, of course, would take the \$100,000,000 off the customs revenue. Now how would you do it? Abolish all tax on all raw materials, including wool, and you have made only one-eighth of the necessary reduction. Take off all tax on every form of iron and steel manufactures, and you have reduced another eighth. Take off that tax, and increased imports would prevent any reduction. To make the necessary reduction, therefore, must not Congress necessarily sweep the board and bring in free every form of cotton, woollen, silk, iron, steel, jute, chemical, and other manufactures? Is there any middle course? If so, give us an approximate idea of it.

(2.) What can the President possibly mean in proposing to so shape this enormous reduction of import duties as not to seriously affect the dignity and reward of American labor? I take it that other protected interests are not radically different from iron, and in this industry I speak from knowledge, being actively interested in blast furnaces in three widely separated American districts. A ton of pig iron on the furnace bank represents labor, and nothing else. The average cost now, taking the country over, is not less than \$15.50 to \$16.00 per ton—all labor. Take this to Chicago or St. Louis at an average freight, say, of \$3.00, and it represents not less than \$18.50 per ton, labor and freight. Add \$1.00 per ton for profit, and you have just about the average market to-day at the great Western centres. (In Pittsburgh the selling price to-day is probably below cost of manufacture.)

Now, Scotch and English iron can pay \$6.72 per ton duty and come within one or two dollars per ton of meeting these prices in Chicago and St. Louis. Take off this \$6.72 protection, and there is an instant advantage of at least \$5.00 per ton for the foreign manufacturer in the very centre of the American Continent. My furnaces have plainly one of two courses to pursue—shut up, or reduce cost (labor) by \$5.00 per ton, or 33 per cent. Can you think of any other way? If not, do you think American mechanics, artisans, and laboring men, and the farmers who find manufacturing centres their highest priced markets, will permit any party to stand which advocates such action?

I ask these questions, not to argue for a system that has many inconsistencies, but to get

light on the practical phases of a question affecting every American citizen. H.
CINCINNATI, O.

[We have never advocated taking \$100,000,000 off the customs revenue; but if that were desirable, we could find ways to do it without producing all of the evils apprehended by "H." The Bureau of Statistics classifies our imports, for purposes of convenience and simplicity, in six schedules, with the amounts of duty collected, thus:

Class A—Food and live animals. . . .	\$67,998,330
Class B—Articles to be manufactured. . .	19,567,903
Class C—Manufactures to be further manufactured.	20,393,494

Revenue from these classes: \$107,959,727

The other schedules are "manufactured articles ready for consumption" and "articles of voluntary use, luxuries, etc.," which need not be here considered. The "manufactured articles to be further manufactured" consist of tin plates, wire rods, paints, dyes, and chemicals, lumber, leather, furs, materials for hats, and woollen and worsted yarns. Pig iron is in the list of crude articles to be manufactured, and is an inconsiderable item so far as the revenue collected from it goes.

An effectual measure for the reduction of the surplus would be the repeal or reduction of taxes on the following articles:

Domestic tobacco.	\$30,000,000
Sugar (reduce one-half).	30,000,000
Other food and raw materials.	30,000,000
	\$90,000,000

The surplus is a tremendous fact. It was \$55,000,000 on the 1st of December. It is now \$66,000,000. Any person who objects to any particular mode of reducing it is bound to show a better one.—ED. NATION.]

"IN THIS CONNEXION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of your correspondents, some months ago, ventured to characterize the words of my heading as at once "a New England phrase" and "a very illogical provincialism." My compendious reply to him, in No. 1127, was: "It is neither; and I could make good my contention." I now do so.

By normal development, *connexion*, originally abstract, has come to be also concrete, for "person or thing in connexion or connected"; and it is, further, used collectively, as in "the Whig *connexion*," "the Methodist *connexion*." But the fact is overlooked, by lexicographers, that it has been synonymized with *context*; except that, in this acceptance, it is seldom, however unobjectionably, found immediately preceded by the definite article. "The *connexion* goes to show," or the like, I do not remember to have met with more than once.

Etymologically considered, though not with the sanction of ordinary usage, like the Latin *contextus*, *context* signifies, according to Dr. Johnson's first definition of it, "the general series of a discourse"; a definition which the latest editor of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, Dr. Latham, has omitted. As all but invariably employed, the term imports, with reference to a discourse or composition, viewed as a complex, one of its items, clauses, or topics, regarded relatively to something to which it is either adjacent or allied.

Connexion, precisely so taken, is exemplified in the subjoined quotations, &c.:

"This word, in certain *connexions*, denotes,"

&c.: "The word, . . . in all its *connexions* throughout the Hebrew scriptures," &c. Rev. Martin Madan, *Theophthora* (1780), vol. i., pp. 48, 62.

"Martin took the sentence out of its *connexion*." Richard Porson, *Letters to Mr. Archdeacon Travis* (1790), p. 310.

"Here, then, we have not only the same argument stated, but stated in the same *connexion*." William Hazlitt (1807), *Political Essays* (1819), p. 413.

"By placing any of the arithmetic signs or words . . . in different *connexions*, they may seem (but only seem) to acquire and express different meanings." James Gilchrist, *The Labyrinth Demolished* (1815), p. 22.

"In such a *connexion*, . . . the indefinite article answers a useful purpose." *Id.*, *The Etymologic Interpreter* (1824), p. 138.

"Sulpicius also happens to mention, in another *connexion*," &c. Cardinal Newman (1833, &c.), *The Church of the Fathers* (2nd ed. of 1842), p. 412. And again (1842) in the Cardinal's *Essay on Ecclesiastical Miracles* (1843), p. 82, and in other works of his.

"Those who pick the word out of its *connexion*," &c. Rev. Dr. S. R. Maitland, *Remarks*, &c. (1836), p. 31.

"Its influence on the planting and manufacturing interests is a subject to be considered in another *connexion*." Miss Harriet Martineau, *Society in America* (1837), vol. i., p. 103 (ed. 1839). Also in vol. ii., pp. 117, 252, 306.

"This is almost the only *connexion* in which the word 'woman' is used." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iii., p. 83.

"I certainly had not read it [scil., a certain passage] in its original *connexion*." Rev. Dr. W. H. Mill (1846), *Five Sermons on the Nature of Christianity* (1848), p. 130.

"In another *connexion*." Rev. Mark Pattison, *Oxford Essays* (1855), p. 277.

"In such a *connexion*." Mr. Walter Bagehot (1859), *Literary Studies* (1879), vol. i., p. 213.

"In a different *connexion*." Dr. W. G. Ward, *Nature and Grace* (1860), pp. 349, 416.

"In different *connexions*." Rev. Benjamin Jowett, *Essays and Reviews* (1860), p. 371.

"In a different *connexion*," "in another *connexion*." Prof. John Conington (died 1869), *Miscellaneous Writings* (1872), vol. i., pp. 266, 458.

"In a somewhat different *connection*." Mr. Richard Congreve (1870), *Essays*, &c. (1874), p. 364.

"In such a *connection*." Mr. John Morley, *Critical Miscellanies*, vol. i. (1871), p. 313. "In the present *connection*." *Id.*, *Voltaire* (1871), p. 295 (ed. 1872).

"In such a *connection*." Mr. Leslie Stephen, *Hours in a Library*, First Series (1874), p. 321.

"In any other *connection*." *Id.*, *History of English Thought*, &c. (1876), vol. ii., p. 403.

"In several *connexions*, . . . in different *connexions*." Mr. Matthew Arnold, *God and the Bible* (1875), p. 297 (ed. 1884).

"In the same *connexion*." Prof. Sidney Colvin, *Landor* (1881), p. 21.

Passing by unnoticed a great many similar proofs of my position which are at hand, I give four quotations exemplifying the not unusual substitution of *connexion* for *context* in a tralatitious sense:

"Many ideas may be excellent as parts of a great whole, which, when violently torn from their *connection*," &c. William Godwin, *An Enquiry concerning Political Justice* (1793), p. 220.

"A subject in all its import, meaning, *connections*, relations, aspects, and bearings." James Gilchrist, *Reason the True Arbiter of Language* (1814), p. 79.

"Meantime, the clergy were pretending to find express sanctions of slavery in the Bible, and putting words to this purpose into the mouths of public men who do not profess to remember the existence of the Bible in any other *connexion*." Miss Martineau (*ut supra*), vol. iii., p. 231.

"How should a story prove the existence of God, which, if told in any other *connection*, would only prove its narrator to be the victim or the author of a lie?" Mr. Leslie Stephen, *Hours in a Library*, Second Series (1876), p. 142.

On at least one occasion, William Hazlitt pretty clearly extends the meaning of *connexion*, so as to make the word equivalent to *discourse*. It is where, having premised the names of Byron and Scott, he goes on to say:

"We shall treat of them in the same [i. e., one and the same] *connection*." *Spirit of the Age* (1825), p. 159.

Connexion is here much the same as *contexte*, agreeably to the first part of one of the definitions of it in the Dictionary of the French Academy: "Un texte quelconque, considéré par rapport à l'ensemble d'idées qu'il présente, ou au sens que certains passages empruntent de ce qui les précède ou de ce qui les suit."

The word *context*, in all likelihood, seemed too formal and technical to those who proposed, in place of it, *connexion* used restrictively. The latter has, however, but little affected, on the whole, the prevalence of the former; and we find, in the pages of a living author, even "in this *context*," in preference to the phrase which has been objected to. Mr. Richard Congreve has (1873):

"But, if I wished to indicate the general defect under which we labour, a general ground for our not producing a greater effect than we do, I should avail myself of the words of one of our number—not used in this *context*, but suiting my present purpose,—and say," &c. *Essays*, &c. (1874), p. 480.

As respects the particular combination "in this *connexion*," possibly it had not yet appeared in 1800; and, at present, I am unable to show that its age is more than half a century. That all along during that time, however, it has had the support of very good authority is evidenced by the ensuing quotations and references:

"Such, at least, is the theory; and one fact, in this *connexion*, is," &c. Miss Martineau (*ut supra*), vol. i., p. 277. Also in vol. ii., p. 28, and vol. iii., p. 75.

"In this *connexion* we are led to quote," &c. Cardinal Newman (1841), *Essays Critical and Historical* (1871), vol. ii., p. 272.

"In this *connexion*, therefore, it is full of interest to trace back," &c. Bp. Samuel Wilberforce, *A History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America* (1844), p. 13 (ed. 1846).

Prof. F. W. Newman, *History of the Hebrew Monarchy* (1847), p. 354: *Miscellanies* (1869), p. 302.

Rev. G. S. Faber, *The Many Mansions*, &c. (1851), p. 437 (ed. 1862).

Rev. Dr. S. R. Maitland, *Eight Essays on Various Subjects* (1852), p. 150.

Saturday Review (1861), vol. xi., p. 662.

Literary Churchman (1861), vol. vii., p. 447.

Mr. John Morley, *Critical Miscellanies*, vol. i. (1871), p. 322. *Id.*, *On Compromise* (1874), p. 116.

Mr. Leslie Stephen, *Hours in a Library*, First Series (1874), p. 192: Third Series (1879), p. 198.

Rev. J. D. Aylward, in *Essays on Religion and Literature*, edited by Cardinal Manning, Third Series (1874), p. 86.

Dr. C. E. Appleton (1876), *Life and Literary Relics of him* (1881), p. 175.

Mr. J. A. Symonds, *Shelley* (1878), p. 85.

"George Eliot," *Impressions of Theophrastus Such* (1879), pp. 271, 348. The expression is there used figuratively.

Dr. W. G. Ward (1882), *Essays on the Philosophy of Theism* (1884), vol. ii., pp. 122, 132.

The want of sufficient specification in some of my old notes prevents me from referring here to the Rev. Dr. Whewell and many other authors of acknowledged repute.

Even if "in this *connexion*" stood, as it has been supposed to do, for the elliptical "in connexion with this," still it could not be arraigned either as "very illogical," or as violently unidiomatical. Nearly on all fours with it, thus understood, is "in his company," with which may be compared "on this account," "on this score," "in his stead," and similar expressions in abundance. Madame D'Arblay's "in its comparison," for "in comparison with or of it," is certainly very peculiar. See her *Diary and Letters*, vol. vi. (1846), p. 199.

"In this *connexion*," "in another *connexion*," "in such a *connexion*," &c., are, obviously, homogeneous. The second occurs, in the range of

my reading, as early as the first. Cardinal Newman has been cited for both of them; and, in the absence of proof, it is not lightly to be assumed that such a master of English idiom would countenance so illegitimate an ellipsis as "in another connexion," for "in connexion with another matter," or the like.

Finally, if the use of *connexion* by *context*, frequent as it is, had not been overlooked, probably the expressions here discussed would have incurred no censure. As regards "in this connexion," the late Mr. Edward S. Gould was well advised in declining the advice given him to condemn it. - That it is "not often employed by the best writers in England" is one of the numerous statements hazarded by the editors of Dr. Webster's Dictionary which require modification, while their *prima-facie* explanation of it, "in connection with this subject," calls to be revised.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESPORD, ENGLAND, December 13, 1887.

ROBERT SOUTH AND THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (volume xxii), in the article "Robert South," it is said: "In 1710, he (South) showed himself a keen opponent of Sacheverell." Now, in the memoir of Dr. South which is prefixed to the edition of his works published by Bohn of London, in 1850, it is said (page vii): "His zeal for the welfare of his beloved Church lost none of its ardour, and we are not surprised to find that, among the last acts of his public life, was his interesting himself on behalf of the notorious Dr. Sacheverell."

Again, Dr. Lake, the present Dean of Durham, says in his essay on South (Kempe's 'Classic Preachers of the English Church,' p. 64): "[He] was a warm supporter of Sacheverell." Confidence in this statement may be somewhat impaired by the fact that Dr. Lake adds that this occurred "in 1670," whereas Sacheverell was not born till 1674. The internal evidence, however, would be all in favor of Dr. Lake and the Memoir and against the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Sacheverell was an ardent Tory, who preached two sermons in 1709, declaring the Church in danger from the course of the Whig Ministry. For this he was prosecuted in February, 1710. South, too, was a strong Tory, and was all his life proclaiming the divine right of Church and State and non-resistance to royal ordinance. It is in the highest degree improbable that he should be a "keen opponent" of a man whose position he so thoroughly sympathized with as that of Dr. Sacheverell. I have not at hand the means for consulting authorities more widely and determining whether the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' has made a mistake here, as would seem to be the case. Can any of your readers settle the question?

It is also stated in the same article that South was, before the Restoration, "a strong supporter of Presbyterianism." I can find no evidence of this, except the fact that in 1655, the year in which he took his B. A. degree at Oxford, he published a Latin panegyric on Cromwell. When we remember that Latin verses in England, even in our own day, are not the most natural medium for the expression of the author's opinions, and that the subjects for such verses are often set by the college authorities, stronger proof of South's ardent support of Presbyterianism will be needed than these verses. As negative proof that he was not attracted to Presbyterianism are to be noted the facts that he satirized the Puritans in his public capacity of *Terræ Filius* at Oxford;

that he drew upon himself the severe reprimand of Dr. John Owen, Cromwell's Vice-Chancellor of the University, for continuing to worship according to the liturgy, after it had been prohibited; that he was admitted to holy orders in 1658 by a deprived bishop, whereas, if he had been an adherent of Presbyterianism, he would naturally either have sought ordination from Presbyterian authorities, or, if more Episcopally inclined, from some conforming bishop; and that in 1659 he made a violent attack in his sermon, "The Professors of Godliness, but Workers of Iniquity," on the Independents—though this, it is true, it is possible he might have done if he had been a Presbyterian. South has quite enough to answer for in being always the champion of the established fact, without compelling him, unless such was unquestionably the case, to answer so grave a charge as that of a change from a "strong supporter of Presbyterianism" to a bitter opponent of it in a very brief time. Can any one confirm or convict the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' here again? FREDERIC PALMER.

JENKINTOWN, PA., December 28, 1887.

Notes.

CHAS. SCRIBNER'S SONS' near publications are the 'Memoir of Fleeming Jenkin,' by Robert Louis Stevenson; 'The English in the West Indies,' by J. A. Froude; 'Old Spain and New Spain,' by the Rev. Henry M. Field; a new edition, thoroughly revised, of J. J. Knox's 'United States Notes'; and an English translation of Prof. Franz Delitzsch's latest edition of his 'Commentary on Genesis.'

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'The Triumph of the Presbytery of Hanover; or, The Separation of Church and State in Virginia; to which is added a Concise History of the Presbyterian Church in America, from 1705 to 1888,' by Jacob Harris Patton, M.A., Ph.D. They will also put their imprint on the 'Life of Samuel Morley,' by Edwin Hodder, author of 'The Life of Lord Shaftesbury.'

The Dante Society announces that the Concordance of the 'Divina Commedia,' upon which Prof. E. A. Fay has been engaged for some time, and of which we have already spoken, is now ready for printing. The volume will contain between eight and nine hundred pages, and the greatest care will be taken to insure accuracy in the printing. The price in cloth is ten dollars, by subscription. It is hoped that there will be a ready response from the scholars of the country to aid in crediting America with so valuable a publication. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. John Woodbury, 10 Tremont St., Boston, or, in Europe, to Messrs. Trübner & Co., Ludgate Hill, London.

Prof. W. I. Knapp of Yale is still desirous of obtaining material for his Biography of George Borrow. A condensed sketch of the career of this remarkable man was prepared by Prof. Knapp for the November *Chautauquan*, and he has reprinted it as a little brochure for private distribution in furtherance of his researches.

We have already noted, at the time of their appearance in *Scribner's*, the letters of a young woman at the beginning of the century, which are now published in an attractive book-form under the title 'A Girl's Life Eighty Years Ago' (Scribners). The scope of the correspondence, which ranges over Portland; Boston, Saratoga, New York, and Charleston, gives a broad view of the conditions of our early social

life. The illustrations are numerous and well printed, and the portraits of old Salem and other worthies have almost an historical interest in our social annals. Clarence Cook furnishes a sympathetic and competent introduction.

An American edition of S. C. Hall's 'Book of British Ballads' was published in 1844. The collection seemed a proper one for the series called "Knickerbocker Nuggets" (Putnams), and it takes its place there so far transformed as to have very abridged notices of the several ballads, relegated to an appendix instead of being prefixed, and all the original illustrations reduced in size to fit the tiny page. For decorative purposes this reduction is no loss. The finest type called for by the scheme is an occasional hardship to the eyes.

Dryden's Poems, more of Plutarch's Lives, Shakspeare's "Winter's Tale" (with its progenitor, Greene's "Pandosto"), and Southey's 'Colloquies on Society,' are the latest issues in the pocket "Cassell's National Library."

The 'Jubilee and Plantation Songs' published by Oliver Ditson & Co. is a selection which one may be glad to own who cares to preserve specimens of this indeterminately large class of truly American compositions. It draws upon the stock of the various colored college singers, with but little indebtedness to the best extant collection, the 'Slave Songs of the United States.' Even when the titles and words are the same, a great difference in the airs is often remarkable.

L. K. Strouse & Co., New York, send us seven numbers of the first volume of the official edition of the Inter-State Commerce Commission Reports—a series destined to be classical in the literature of transportation the world over.

A *Civil-Service Chronicle and United States Consular Record* is to be edited in Boston by C. B. Norton, and published monthly at a low price. It will supply practical information in regard to the civil service, examinations for admission to it, preparation and study for it, etc. It will keep the run of consular affairs, and give extracts from consular reports. It will favor the growth of foreign trade, and advocate steamship subsidies to South American ports.

Book-Lore has been absorbed into the *Book-Worm* (London: Elliot Stock; New York: Geo. J. Coombes). The first number of the new journal bears date of December, 1887. It is smaller, handier, and typographically more attractive than its predecessor. Its aim, as well as we can make out, is to popularize the love of books by spreading readable information about "old-time literature." It is illustrated, and starts with an interesting table of contents, in which Mr. Henry B. Wheatley's paper on 'John Wesley's English Dictionary' would be generally allowed to be of first importance intrinsically and in the line of the magazine.

The *Art Age* for December issues as a detached supplement an admirable engraving, by Elbridge Kingsley, of a wood scene, "Silence," after the painting of that name by Wm. Bliss Baker. The block is very large (14½x10), and in all respects the print is suitable for preservation by framing.

Vol. ii of *Modern-Language Notes* (1887) lies before us, neatly bound. It would be impossible, of course, to give even an inkling of contents so diversified. We can only congratulate the managing editor, Prof. Elliott, and his associates, Messrs. Bright, Goebel, and Todd, upon their success. What seemed a problem two years ago is now an assured fact. The *Notes* already take the lead in all matters per-

taining to the scientific teaching of modern languages and literatures. This comes of having a high purpose and the courage of one's convictions. We have only one remark to offer upon the general direction of the *Notes*: it is, that English philology has not the prominence that one might look for in an English journal. This bias towards the foreign is doubtless one of which the editors are not at all conscious. It is at bottom the result of occult psychological forces. Educated as so many of us have been in foreign schools, we are apt to overlook the truism that the foreign is there the *native*. If we are to rival the Germans, for instance, not merely in form but in spirit, we shall give the lion's share to our own modern language, as they give it to theirs.

Carl's essay on the life and works of Thomas Lodge, *Anglia* x, 235-238, is a good summing up and restatement of what was already known, but it scarcely adds to our knowledge. Like so many other disquisitions in the *Anglia*, it suffers from an overflow of "Quellen"; the three pages of authorities might profitably have been condensed into one. And one monograph on Lodge, the most important of late years, is strangely conspicuous by its absence—we mean Gosse's paper, in his 'Seventeenth Century Studies' (London, 1883). From it Carl might have learned of Lodge's being entered at Merchant School, March, 1571; also that the non-mention of Lodge in his father's will by no means implied disinheritance for bad conduct. Carl does not seem to be aware of Lodge's later proclivities to Roman Catholicism, touched upon by Gosse. Read in this light, the passage, cited p. 261, condemning the use of Scripture for the drama, is anything but "irony"; it is rather the language of a convert.

The latest issue of the *Englische Studien*, xi, 1, contains an instructive article of twenty-five pages by Krummacker on the language and style of Carlyle's 'Frederick II.' We are all familiar by this time with Carlylese, its strong and its weak points. But such a systematic treatment of it by a well-trained foreigner will give us a clearer perception of its oddities. The words are arranged in alphabetical order. Not the least valuable portion of the paper is that which treats of compounds and derivatives. The author has erred occasionally in treating as Carlylese what is common literary property—thus, "abeyance," page 80. "Doggery," page 83, can scarcely be a rendering of *Canaille*; "thimblig-filouterie," page 82, is too obvious in meaning to call for a (?). "Inarticulate," page 85, is interpreted "beliebter Ausdruck für wortkarg, verschlossen, unberedt, auch für unverständlich"; not one of these quite hits the mark.

An interesting recent Russian publication is 'Old St. Petersburg,' by M. I. Pylayeff, with numerous illustrations taken from old prints. The city is old enough and has undergone enough changes to render such a book appropriate, though it cannot compete with many other European capitals in the beauty of its ancient structures, whatever may be said about the buildings of the present day.

General Alexander von Kaulbars, before he became so conspicuous in Bulgarian affairs, was chiefly known as explorer of the Oxus, or Amu-Darya, River and its basin. He has recently issued a new book on the subject, entitled 'The Most Ancient Beds of the Amu-Darya.' Thanks to the labors and investigations of specialists, one of the most prominent questions of late has been as to the former course of that Central-Asian stream, and it is a question of some interest independently of its purely scientific aspects. Recent researches have revealed traces of the former channel of the river through the

present oasis of Khiva, below Pitnyak; and further out on the steppe towards the Sari-Kamyshk basin, and also of an ancient channel through which the overflow of this basin reached the Caspian Sea. General Kaulbars's latest volume is devoted to the subject of these ancient channels; and he notes the traces which are met with above Pitnyak, along the banks of the river's present channel, and in the stretch lying between Khiva and the northern extensions of the Paropamisus, nearly to the Caspian Sea. His volume is published by the Geographical Society at St. Petersburg, is accompanied by charts showing the altitude of various points above the level of the Caspian Sea along the line of Tcharjui-Merv, etc., by a detailed chart of the country between the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral, of the districts adjoining the Amu-Darya, and by other charts.

The December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a brief sketch of Mr. A. D. Carey's remarkable journey in 1885 from Ladakh through Central Asia and from Lob Nor across the Altyn Tagh into northern Tibet. The solitariness of part of the region through which he passed can be realized from the fact that for eighty days he did not see a human being save the members of his own party. When they at length reached an inhabited place, his followers in an ecstasy of delight knelt and kissed the first human foot-prints which they saw. There were some fertile tracts, but this part of Turkestan is generally very sterile, and the people are wretchedly poor. They were very friendly, however, and apparently well governed. Crime was rigidly repressed, and life and property as safe as in India. At one point Mr. Carey reports falling in with an incredible number of antelopes, and at another he saw tigers hunting on the ice.

Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for November contains the conclusion of Dr. V. Jhering's report on the German colony in the Brazilian province of Rio Grande do Sul, together with a sketch of Capt. J. S. King's explorations in Somaliland. Dr. Schinz throws very serious doubts on the genuineness of Mr. Farini's 'Through the Kalahari Desert,' hinting very plainly that it is nothing but a "Jules Verne'sche" romance. A supplementary number contains an elaborate monograph on the island of Corfu by J. Partsch, accompanied by three admirable maps.

The third part of 'Bibliographie générale et raisonnée du droit belge,' by Edmond Picard and Ferdinand Larcier (Brussels: F. Larcier), has been published during the year and completes the alphabet of authors. The three parts, of which the first was published in 1882 and the second in 1885, make one volume of 867 octavo pages. A second volume is to contain the periodicals, series, and all the anonymous works, notwithstanding that when the authorship of an anonymous book has been discovered, the title appears under the author's name in this first volume. The publisher also promises a subject index. The period covered begins with the year 1814, and the number of titles recorded is 6,736. This number includes, however, the contributions to 136 periodicals and society publications which are indexed. When these are deducted, there remain about 4,200 titles of books and pamphlets upon law subjects issued from the press of Belgium in something like seventy years. Aside from a large number of inaugural dissertations in Latin, nearly every book is in the French language, the only exceptions being seventy-one titles in Dutch, three in German, and a single one, 'The Laws of Belgium which Affect British Subjects,' in English. The titles are given with reasonable fulness, including the

place of publication, name of publisher, and date, while the size of each book and the number of pages it contains are stated, and, when it was published for sale, the price is added. Only the last edition of a work is catalogued, but in a note the dates of the earlier editions are mentioned, and the notes also contain brief references to review notices, while, in the case of deceased authors, biographical references are appended.

The new Berlin school for the study of Oriental languages has 115 students, 40 of whom are preparing for the diplomatic and colonial service. There are about as many who expect to be teachers and naturalists or explorers, the remainder being merchants' clerks. The Arabic and Chinese classes are most numerous attended, the Japanese and Turkish coming next.

—In the January *Atlantic*, fiction comes well to the front, with two new serials, and the prospectus for the year promises yet a third from the pen of Henry James. The leading place is given to a novel fresh in topic and treatment, the scene being laid in Japan. The opening chapters introduce us to a missionary circle and exhibit the limitations of mind and culture in some of its members, with an unsparing frankness. One overhears in the comments of the principal character, who tells the story in his own person, the author's disapproval of some traits which it is not surprising to find in earnest and narrow persons from among whom the ranks of missionaries are necessarily recruited, and there is something of harshness in the words used, however just they may be in particular cases. But the Japanese heroine is drawn with a tender touch, and has the pathetic quality apt to be found in aliens who interest the Western mind; and the episode of her early life, which is the main incident of these chapters, is a delightful child-story. The progress of this tale from a new hand will be looked for with a humanitarian's as well as a novel-reader's interest. The other serial is from Miss Murfree, whose engraved portrait accompanies the number; it is in her well-worked style. The remainder of the contents is variously made up of travel to the two Golden Horns of Constantinople and California; of some letters of Franklin to Strahan which illustrate the sort of books our great-grandfathers read; and of a short contribution by Mr. Edward J. Lowell to the endless discussion of what should constitute a liberal education for an American boy, from the point of view of the smaller college. Mr. James Russell Lowell contributes a brief poem in lyrical form, which exhibits both the grace of his muse and the mastery of his hand, and is another foretaste of the promised volume for which the public still waits.

—The illustrated article in *Scribner's* is one upon mediæval armor. It is very complete, and is accompanied by a text which is not too technical, though somewhat difficult to follow as a history of armor. The Great Pyramid, a subject whose interest seems to be as eternal as the stone, is admirably pictured from many points of view, and the story of its exploration in modern times is well told. Fiction is represented by a new long novel by Mr. F. J. Stimson, "First Harvests"—presumably the first results of American civilization in society. The scene is in New York, the characters are fashionable, the tone is cynical to a fault; the work has received high finish, and there are some beautiful descriptions of the sights of an oil refinery, in which there was opportunity for the author's poetic feeling. Mr. Brownell continues to exalt the French genius for intelligence, but his essays suffer from comparison with Mr. Hamerton's late papers, Mr. Lang

has a charming motive for a poem in "American Antiquities," of which he makes the most he is able to do; and Mr. Aldrich contributes a pathetic single-thought poem, "White Edith." A very interesting article to those whose taste leads them to Oriental art is from the hand of Mr. William Elliot Griffis, on "Japanese Art, Artists, and Artisans," with illustrations after drawings by a Japanese artist. Municipal finance and Balzac are topics to add variety, and the number is rounded off by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson, who confides to the reader how his waking moments have been served by his dreams, which have given suggestions or scenes for some of his stories.

—The interest of the January *Harper's* lies largely in its illustrations. Two of the contributions treat directly of art subjects, and yet in such a way as to leave the pictures in the first place. The "Adoration of the Magi," which leads the number, shows the changes of rendering and spirit which different times have brought about in the case of one of the constant themes of the painter's imagination, from the walls of the Catacombs to the Church of the Incarnation in this city; and the article upon "French Sculpture" makes the modern masters of France known by a number of examples of their characteristic works. The text of both papers is inferior. Archdeacon Farrar's sketch of the share of America in Westminster Abbey is also mainly attractive from its cuts; but the attention of those who are interested in placing memorials in England to testify to American filial piety, may be directed to the Archdeacon's desire to "erect a worthy window" to John Milton's memory in the Church of St. Margaret's, and his declaration that if any of Milton's American admirers should be willing to assist in this design, he would "on public grounds most heartily welcome their munificence." The twenty portraits of Italian Deputies, principally ministers, are also of interest to the eye, and the text is what it should be, brief and to the point. Mr. Watterson writes of the tariff from the reformer's standpoint, but hardly with the closeness and point specially desirable now. The city of Savannah is graphically laid before the reader in an article that glows with the optimism and pride of the new South, and is materially instructive as well. Mr. Black begins a new novel, and Mr. Curtis again passes to his readers the compliments of the season.

—The "Social History of England," by Louise Creighton (London: Rivingtons, 1887), is the second contribution to a series called "Highways of History," edited by Louise Creighton, the first volume of which, "The Government of England," by the same author, appeared in 1884. "The aim of this series," says the prospectus, "is to give consecutive treatment to certain important subjects in English History. . . . The treatment of the subjects in this series is adapted for the use of students who have already mastered the general outline of English History, but wish for more connected information with regard to some special point. Each part is complete in itself, and treats of its own subject without reference, except where necessary, to the general course of events." In the "Social History of England," the author has, on the whole, done her work admirably. Every important phase of social development, from the mark system of the Saxons, the medieval towns, guilds, monasteries, feudalism, villeinage, etc., down to the reforms of the nineteenth century, is briefly but ably and comprehensively discussed. In a compilation like this, based on many authorities, some omissions and errors of detail are inevitable,

On p. 10 the important points of divergence between English and Continental feudalism should have been briefly characterized. The distinction between court baron and court customary, on p. 13, is not fully enough stated. The old gild-halls of England did not bear the name *hans hus*, as asserted on p. 21, except perhaps in the two cases of Beverley and York. The *firma burgi* was not merely the right of the burgesses to collect the royal dues belonging to a town (p. 23), but the commutation of those dues by the annual payment of a fixed sum of money. There is no good authority for the statement, on p. 25, that "a branch of the famous Hanseatic League had been established in London certainly since 967." For *firma burghi*, on p. 23, read *firma burgi*; for *Gilda Teutonicurum*, on p. 39, *Gilda Teutonicorum*. But we are not inclined to emphasize these and some other shortcomings that have attracted our attention. The work is a compilation of real merit, which may be safely commended not merely to young students, but also to older persons seeking to supplement or to refresh their knowledge of the *Culturgeschichte* of England.

—Sievers's Anglo-Saxon grammar, whether in the original German or in Cook's translation, is doubtless somewhat bulky and complicated for the beginner. Admitting this, we cannot withhold from the 'Outline of Anglo-Saxon Grammar,' by Baskervill and Harrison (A. S. Barnes & Co.) the merit of undertaking to meet a practical want. The pamphlet is an "off-print," with some corrections, of the Appendix to the Dictionary, published two years ago. But we suspect that the editors are not fully abreast with the times. Why, for instance, do they adhere to Koch's antiquated classification of strong verbs, instead of following the more scientific classification of Braune, Sievers, and Noreen? Or treat *tōd, fōt, bōc* as *mixed* stems? Or speak of *niht* as indeclinable? Aside from the adverbial genitive *nihtes*, mentioned by them, we find a genitive *nihtes* not adverbial, a genitive *nihte*, a dative *nihte*, gen.-pl. *nihta*, dat.-pl. *nihtum*. The statement, page 65, that the verb forms (*a-hwi*) are based on Bosworth-Toller and Groschopp, and the orthography corrected by Sweet's 'Reader,' is not encouraging. It would have been incomparably safer to follow Sievers's second edition implicitly. And what is meant by *regular* verb-forms? Followers of Sievers know that there are dialects in early English, and that in each dialect there are early and late forms. But they know nothing of regular forms as distinguished from irregular. The editors have retained throughout such spellings as *ȝwan* (printed *ywan*). Is this regular, in distinction from the earlier Wessex *ȝewan*? And of the six forms *gerwan, gærwian, girwan, gierwan, gyrwan, gearwan*, which is regular? The infinitives *pihan, tihan, rafan* would be difficult to demonstrate. Such errors of method and of detail will render the 'Outline' unsafe for the beginner, for whom it is intended.

—That the present generation is suffering from lack of a book about the "animals of antiquity," is an idea that had not hitherto forced itself upon our attention, especially since the appearance of Victor Hehn's excellent work upon 'Domestic Plants and Animals in Their Transition from Asia to Greece, Italy, and the Rest of Europe.' We had thought that Hehn, whose work is full of quotations from Greek and Latin writers, and has long been an authority upon what may be called the philology of our familiar plants and animals, must have exhausted all the more interesting aspects of the subject, scientific as well as sentimental. But now comes Otto Keller, assuring us "that there

is probably no point upon which the learned world are so perfectly agreed as upon this, that a usable book upon the animals of antiquity is a real need of contemporary scientific investigation." This remark is made, as any one might guess, in the preface to a new book by Herr Keller. The book is entitled 'Thiere des classischen Alterthums in culturhistorischer Beziehung' (Innsbruck, 1887). It has, speaking roughly, 300 pages of text to 200 of notes, but in spite of its prodigious wealth of learning it is modestly styled "only a beginning." The treatise has a chapter, long or short, upon each and every animal known to have been in any degree familiar to the ancients. The general reputation of the beast, his habits and habitat, exact observations and loose superstitions concerning him, are all set forth from the authorities, the author taking special pains to note any facts having a bearing upon mythology. A feature of the book is the illustrations from ancient reliefs, vases, gems, mosaics, coins, etc. For this purpose the treasures of the British Museum and the museums of Berlin and of Brussels have been specially drawn upon, most of the illustrations having been engraved especially for this volume. In the pictorial department of the work, as also to some extent in the text itself, we find not only Greek and Roman, but also Assyrian and Egyptian antiquity represented.

—A correspondent writes us from St. Petersburg under date of November 27 (December 9), 1887: "An eminent artist here has in his studio two recently finished portraits of Count L. N. Tolstoi, not yet shown to the public. He has made an exception in my favor. The portraits published last summer in America were taken two years ago, but the larger of these I speak of represents him as at least ten years older, with hair lying close and thin on his temples, and with the beard smaller. The folds of the black gown girt about the waist with a cord conceal the lines of the figure, and one hand holds a book—an English socialistic book, the name of which the artist has forgotten. The head, though greatly changed and aged, bears the same stamp of power and sadness which is so striking in previous portraits, and the features are more marked than ever. The second picture is small, and represents Count Tolstoi ploughing in the fields, with the harrow hitched to the rear of the unwieldy plough, which is drawn by a white horse along the slope. The Count's gray beard streams sideways across his blue blouse and half-bared breast, and his cap is pulled well down over his face. This portrait was painted on the spot last summer, and is only less interesting than the large one. This beloved author's scheme for the preparation of reading-books for the people flourishes. I know the wife of a Senator who has prepared a life of Socrates (and prepared it admirably) for this purpose, which Count Tolstoi corrected, and which sells for two cents. Her name does not appear (nor does his) in the matter; and he has other assistants who are equally modest. An important step in the direction of popular education has also been taken by the authorities, and nowhere will its importance be more thoroughly appreciated than in America. The first free public library, in honor of the memory of the poet Pushkin, was opened here day before yesterday, and all day yesterday it was thronged. It begins with the modest outfit of four thousand volumes, acquired from various sources, and the intention is to establish a great many more like it, with the hope that workmen may thereby be induced to abandon the dram-shops. Though the Imperial Public Library is accessi-

ble to everybody, it is by no means free in the American sense of that term; it is more like the Astor Library, and the officials shake their heads in amazement and doubt when I reply to their queries as to whether we have any 'public libraries' like it in America. No books are permitted for use at home. Only personal friendship with a librarian will give one that privilege in the librarian's name. It seems that the public here abused the privileges accorded to them even in the matter of a full printed catalogue, of which it was found impossible to keep a perfect copy on hand, so that now only a partial catalogue is generally available, and not a single book can be had without a signed application. In many cases, also, an application made in the morning is only filled after three p. m. or the next day. These precautions are probably the outcome of unpleasant experience; but the effect upon the officials of such an establishment of my description of the unprotected reference books and the general methods in American free public libraries can be better imagined than described."

RENAN'S HISTORY OF ISRAEL.

Histoire du Peuple d'Israël. Par Ernest Renan, member de l'Institut, professeur au Collège de France. Vol. I. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1887.

In order to complete the 'History of the Origins of Christianity,' which he initiated a quarter of a century ago with his 'Vie de Jésus,' and continued in 'Les Apôtres,' 'Saint-Paul,' 'L'Antechrist,' 'Les Évangiles,' 'L'Église Chrétienne,' and 'Marc-Aurèle,' M. Renan goes back to the early history of the nation to which the founders of the Christian religion belonged, tracing the origins to their remote springs, "the great prophets who introduced morality into religion about 850 years before Jesus Christ." But then, "prophetism itself has its root in the antique ideal of patriarchal life, an ideal created partly by fancy, but which had been a reality in a remote part of the Israelitish tribe." Consequently Renan must begin the beginnings with the history of Hebrew patriarchal times. But is there such a history? Have any records of it been preserved? Are the Biblical Abraham, Jacob, Joseph, historical personalities? M. Renan has not the least hesitation in answering these questions with a bold negative. Abraham is a transformed recollection of a mythical Babylonian King—the good Orham, or "father Orham," Ab-Orham. Jacob and Joseph are abridged names of nomad clans, Jacob-El and Joseph-El, devoted to the worship of El, like Ishma-El and other Arab Elites. The stories told about them in Genesis are childish tales, full of miraculous traits, which readers of our time cannot but find absurd in the highest degree. Yet such is the vast learning, Biblical and Semitic in general, at the disposal of our writer, and such the magic power of his poetic fancy and descriptive diction, that he can venture to reconstruct Israel's earliest history, partly out of general observations on Arab nomad life and primitive institutions, and partly out of scanty historical threads woven by the ancient Hebrews into their myths and tales.

As we remarked on a much earlier occasion (see *Nation*, No. 213), "M. Renan, without any qualification, rejects as incredible everything supernatural; but the shadows that accompany the delineations of supernatural things he saves, and—quite as artfully as artistically—works them into new images. His new images are often excellent imitations of the sacred ones he

tears; but while orthodoxy must spurn them as devoid of all sacred substance, mere unimpassioned criticism, too, can see in them little more than shadows." Thus he created his Jesus and his Apostles, and painted their Galilee and the cradle-time of Christianity, and thus he reconstructs and paints, with admirable skill, Israel in his infancy and childhood. We use this personal (and Scriptural) form of expression, for under the poetic pencil of our author the nation becomes a hero, and its history a biographical epic. He follows Israel in his wanderings—as a child—from Arabia, along the western banks of the Euphrates, to Padan-Aram, to Canaan, into Egypt. For this period of his hero's life he has nothing but fond sympathy. Israel walks, or might have walked, in perfect simplicity and innocence; his God, then, was the homeless nomad's El, or Elohim, a benevolent, impartially just, unnational, universal god. The pictures of this life, of this faith, are impressive and beguiling from apparent naturalness of delineation and coloring. And everything is chastely done, almost to the exclusion of ornamentation, which saves the idyllically sublime from becoming ridiculous. Nor is the necessary support from varied stores of antiquarian and Oriental lore wanting to the tableau.

The reader must not hastily form the conclusion that M. Renan's epopee of Israel will be as unmixed in features as that of Jesus or St. Paul. Far from it. His Israel will become a nation in Egypt, and "alas! since the beginning of the world no amiable nation has yet been seen." Elohim will be exchanged for Yahveh (Jehovah), a special national god, a god-provoker of Israel. The national idea will demand a god caring only for his nation, to the detriment, the abasement, the woe, of all its opponents and rivals. The theology of Israel, in Shiloh and Shechem, Jerusalem and Samaria, will be as black (the author does not spare the color) as it was pure and amiable under the starry skies and in the healthy air of the desert. The Jehovah of the time of the judges and early kings is not just and kind like El, "the Elyon or the Shaddai of the patriarchs." He is "shockingly partial" to Israel, "frightfully hard" to other nations. "Il tue, il ment, il trompe, il vole pour le plus grand bien d'Israël." Fortunately for the world, the development of Hebrew theology does not end there. "It will be the work of the prophets"—of the ninth century B. C., and of their successors—"to recreate the Elohim of old by dint of reflection," to perfect it, to bring their people back to it, to make it the perennial stream from which all nations will finally draw waters of bliss. "Elohim is the universal God, the God of mankind. In reality, it is to Elohim, not to Yahveh, that the world has been converted. The world has become theistic—that is, Elohist, not Yahvistic. It has forgotten how Yahveh's name was pronounced; every one, to eternity, will furnish it with vowels as he fancies. Neither Christianity nor Islam knows Yahveh." This is, in fact, the keynote of the volume.

These are surely radical notions for an historian of the chosen people, a student of the origins of Christianity, who began his work, and continues it, with a kind of religious ardor. But radical and bold as all this is, the history, as such, must be pronounced far from destructively critical compared with recent German works on the same subject. Wellhausen, in his well-known sketch of the history of Israel (published in the 'Britannica') wastes not a paragraph on the patriarchal period—to which our author devotes 150 pages—evidently deeming all the traditions concerning it completely valueless as a substratum for history. Stade,

in his extensive work (see *Nation*, Nos. 1132 and 1133), barely alludes to them in a few lines, distinctly declaring: "Irgend eine historische Gewissheit ist bei dem bruchstückartigen dieser Ueberlieferungen und ihrer durchgängigen Versetzung mit mythologischen Elementen nicht zu gewinnen." He not only ignores all that is told about the migrations from Ur of the Chaldees to Haran through Canaan, but also the sojourn of the Israelites in Egypt, and their march under the lead of Moses to Sinai, and thence to Gilead. M. Renan has chapters on "The Beni-Israel in Egypt," on "Egypt's Influence on Israel," on "Israel's Exodus," on "Israel in the Desert of Pharan," on "Sinai," and on "The March toward Canaan," devoting much learning, some original criticism, and animated diction to particulars which the more consistent German critics reject as completely fictitious.

M. Renan's inconsistency in rejecting the bulk of the Pentateuchal narratives—all that has real historical importance—as legendary and rather idle tradition, and picking out some few slender threads, presumed to be of older texture, to weave them into a fanciful work of historical reconstruction, is flagrant. He knows no Joseph (barring the clan Joseph-El), no clearly historical Moses—"quoique son existence soit très probable"—no Aaron, no Levites, and doubts the existence of a Joshua; and yet he enters upon speculations on the route taken by the Israelites at the exodus from Egypt, imagines a substitute for the crossing of the Red Sea, speaks of Marah, Elim, Rephidim, Meribah, etc., and introduces Sinai in the highest strains of descriptive rhetoric. When we examine his fascinating narratives, we find them hollow. Israel is said to have become a people in Egypt—"Israël n'est plus une tribu, c'est déjà une nation"—but a little brackish water, sweetened by the infusion of "certain branches," keeps up this people at Marah, and seventy palm trees and some tamarisks give it shade at Elim. Of course, M. Renan reduces the millions of the fugitive Israelites to a comparatively very small number, and their forty years' wandering in the desert to a very rapid march through it—though with a senseless deviation "toward the awful wilderness" of Sinai; but in order to explain away an unavoidable residue of the miraculous, he must still resort to remarks like the following: "The fugitives might have taken along grain and provisions from Egypt. By means of the precious things which they had appropriated to themselves, if the narratives be credible, they could have procured something from the Ishmaelitic or Midianitic merchants, or form a herd for themselves. Possibly the [Sinaitic] Peninsula was not so denuded three thousand years ago as it is at present." "Might," "if," and "possibly" are poor substitutes for the wand of Moses, a surfeit of quails, and plenty of manna from heaven.

The fact is, M. Renan is a much more radical unbeliever now than he was when he wrote his 'Vie de Jésus,' and he is still as Bible-loving, imaginative, and artistically ambitious as he was then. Purposing to write a history of Israel without the least admixture of the supernatural, he cannot resign himself to presenting it incomplete, with gaps, and devoid of its exceptional embellishments. A disciple of the prophets and Bossuet, a critical follower of Kuenen and Wellhausen, and always poetical, he turns what he cannot accept as a sacred account and is unwilling to reject as an historical romance, into a romantic history. He begins with dissecting legend, and ends with rehabilitating it, forgetting his own maxim, "Il y a du danger à chercher trop d'histoire dans de vieux

rêve, où les spectres ne se distinguent pas des hommes." From the scanty footprints of the infant Israel—and to him we must limit our remarks here—a whole image of him is drawn, with the magic help of Semitic philology, Arabian archaeology, Babylonian and Egyptian lore, and philosophy and poetry. The interspersed remarks, learned or other—partly drawn from the author's numerous previous works and dissertations—are generally suggestive and seductively plausible. The critical details may be too numerous for the general public, but they enhance the value of the book for students. Some of the generalizations, whether sound or specious and glittering, are most forcibly presented. The following extract is, in more than one way, characteristic of the work:

"Far from advancing the religious development of Israel, Egypt only strewed obstacles and perils upon the road which God's people had to wander over. Egypt contributed the 'golden calf,' that eternal stumbling-block of the multitude; the brazen serpent, which the puritans detested; the lying oracles [Urim and Tummim]; the Levite ['ark-tender'], who became Israel's leprosy; perhaps also circumcision, the people's greatest mistake, which for a time threatened to defeat its destiny. Excepting the ark, Egypt introduced into Israel only perturbing elements, which had to be eliminated, sometimes not without a crisis. It was not thus with the notions borrowed from Chaldea. These were all fruitful, and, excepting perhaps the unpronounceable name [of the Divinity], have remained strong supports of religion. Believing mankind still lives on them, it owes to those old fables a prehistoric antiquity in which it delights, and a cosmogony of which it is proud. Israel's genius did not spring from Chaldea; but Chaldea furnished it the first ten pages of the book which has made its unparalleled success.

"Egypt, on the contrary, supplied it with few fruitful germs. And how many exquisite things it killed! The beautiful Jacobelite life is gone. Those noble types of [patriarchal] aristocrats, proud, honorable, and religiously serious, have passed away. Authority rests no longer in the hands of the tribal chief. The multitude has now a voice, and this voice will not at all be in favor of religious puritanism. The Elohim-worship will soon appear dull. On every occasion the people will longingly regret the vulgarities of Egypt, and, in order to satisfy it, it will be necessary to erect for it Apis figures with gilded horns."

CRAWFORD'S STORY OF SUMTER.

The Genesis of the Civil War: The Story of Sumter, 1860-61. By Samuel Wylie Crawford, Brevet Major-General U. S. A., A.M., M.D., LL.D. 8vo, pp. xxiv, 486. Charles L. Webster & Co.

THE story of Sumter is doubtless an important chapter in the genesis of the civil war, but it is by no means the whole of it; and Gen. Crawford's method of telling the story, full of interesting matter as it is, only makes it more clearly evident how impossible it is to narrate the "genesis" without writing the full history of the United States during the period immediately preceding the war. Indeed, the war cannot be understood except by regarding it as the culmination of antagonist forces operating from the establishment of the Federal Constitution; and must, therefore, be considered as one of the closing chapters of a constitutional history conceived upon the philosophic plan which Von Holst has followed.

But even when we try to limit the field of the "genesis" to the half year immediately following Mr. Lincoln's election, as Gen. Crawford has done, we find that the progress of public sentiment in every State of the Union, from Maine to Texas, the action of political parties within those States, their legislation, the attitude of the press, the views of leading men, and many other things, help make up the current o

events which swept the nation onward to its great crisis. If we confine our view to the action of Congress and of the seceding States, the attitude and influence of the border slave States, and the conduct of the Administration at Washington, we shall lack some essential elements in the critical analysis of the causes leading to the outbreak of the war, though we should still have a very large field of research.

Gen. Crawford has limited himself by still narrower lines than any of these, and by as much as he has done so necessarily falls short of an adequate grasp and presentation of the subject which is the principal title of his book. The secondary title—"The Story of Sumter"—much better indicates the scope of it, though we can readily understand that a broader title suggested itself by the accumulation of material that bore upon the general policy of the national Government and that of South Carolina. The "genesis" of the book would seem to be this: In the autumn of 1860 Gen. Crawford was an assistant surgeon in the army, and assigned to duty as medical officer in the garrison of Fort Moultrie in Charleston harbor. His zeal led him to volunteer for military duty when he was not employed as surgeon, and he took active personal part in the transfer of the little garrison to Fort Sumter, and in the defence of the latter fort by Maj. Anderson until it was surrendered to the Confederate Army under Beauregard. On his return to the North he sought military duty again, and was soon appointed Brigadier-General of Volunteers. As brigade and division commander, he served with honor in the Army of the Potomac till the close of the war. His part in the historic defence of Sumter led him to collect materials bearing upon all the events connected with it, including not only what public records and printed books and pamphlets would furnish, but what could be procured by private correspondence or conversation with prominent characters on both sides, and from their private papers. He had intimate intercourse with Judge Black, who had been a member of Buchanan's Cabinet, and valuable original documents were procured from him, as well as from Judge Holt, another member of the same Cabinet, and from private papers of Gov. Pickens of South Carolina, of Mr. Seward, of Gen. Anderson, and others.

The story of Sumter has grown out of all these sources, and is centrally the military history of the forts in and about Charleston harbor, the efforts at relieving them and their reduction by the Confederates, with the political history of the events most closely connected with the fate of the forts and their garrison. In collating the material he has collected, the author has avoided carefully—too carefully, we think—the expression of his own judgment, preferring to let the principal characters speak through their own documents and recorded conversations. The indications of quotation are not in all cases complete, and the reader is sometimes puzzled to tell whether he is following the author's own conclusions or the assertions of the original parties to the great controversy. In passing back and forth from the military narrative to political events, it has been hard to keep a smooth current and connected story; repetitions occur frequently, and the relations of things still fail to be as clear as they might be made. If the book should pass to a second edition, a careful revision might make it more satisfactory and more useful.

One of the curious things in the history of the great rebellion is the unchallenged way in which the spokesmen for the seceding States constantly assumed that nothing which was done on their side was an act of war; but that

any return blow would be the beginning of hostilities—would "inaugurate civil war," to use the hackneyed phrase then current. A writer who to-day treats of those events has no need to be embarrassed with all this. The war itself settled some things by the complete assent of all intelligent men of the South. The appeal to arms, in this case as in others, was the submission of a controversy to the *ultima ratio regum*, and its decision. The secession party of the South had asserted a constitutional right on the part of each State to withdraw from the Union whenever its own judgment declared a sufficient cause to exist. The Union men of the country denied this, and asserted the nationality of the whole people in such a sense that secession was violent revolution.

We believe that every statesman of the Southern States who to-day claims to be a citizen of the United States, distinctly and unequivocally holds that this contention was decided by the war in favor of the national view, and that by virtue of such decision the national view is determined to be and is the constitutional law of the United States. We do not say that they desired such a decision; we know, on the contrary, that they fought to establish the other side of the controversy. We do not say that they were not sincere and earnest in their own contention; we know they gave every evidence of their sincerity which men can give. We do not say that they now admit that they were morally or even theoretically wrong in their position; we believe general content and even satisfaction in the constitutional decision is rapidly growing, but even this is not necessary for our conclusion, which is that they agree with us that the constitutional principle is settled. Their attitude, in short, is that of honest men who have submitted a controversy to a court of last resort; they admit that the judgment settles the law of the case, and determines that those in whose favor it is given were acting within their legal right, while those against whom it is given were not. Unscrupulous politicians at the North refuse to accept this plain basis of peace, and lay themselves out to irritate Southern men into expressions of "unrepentance" for their former action, thinking they have made cent per cent. on their political capital when they have goaded some feather-brained rhetorician into exclaiming that "the Lost Cause is not lost." We believe that judicious men of both sections of the country grieve at whatever tends to keep the calm judgment of the whole people from resting quietly upon the solid foundation for a good understanding which we have indicated.

The application of this to historical writing concerning the war is not difficult. A writer on the national side, especially if he have been a soldier, need have no fear that any sensible person will be offended if he treats his subject in accordance with the principle stated. He has the right, and it is his duty, in tracing the steps which led to the terrible conflict, to judge of each act according to settled principles. In January, 1861, South Carolina claimed to be an independent nation by virtue of steps taken in accordance with what she asserted to be rights reserved to her by the Constitution of the United States. The State officers and agents determined that the force and weight of the claim should lose nothing for lack of vehement assertion. In their anxiety to avoid strife, the officers of the United States often fell short of the clear declaration of the national claim that the ordinance of secession was revolutionary, and that the first shouldering of a musket or opening a trench was an act of war. He who writes the history now has the great advantage that

this principle is settled, and his work will be the more respected even by those who fought against it, if he logically and clearly sticks to it in his analysis of events.

There seem to have been five distinct periods of the controversy between November, 1860, and April, 1861, and as many varying attitudes of the national Administration. First, the period when avowed secessionists like Cobb and Thompson were potent influences in Buchanan's Cabinet, and when the executive conduct seemed to admit the full claim of South Carolina. Second, the period when the President theoretically denied the right of secession, but denied also the power of the Government to oppose it. Third, the period when the Administration, under the influence of Black, Holt, Stanton, and Dix, asserted the right to hold and defend the forts and other public property in the South, even if it led to flagrant war. Fourth, the opening period of Lincoln's Administration, when Mr. Seward's view prevailed, that while the right to oppose secession by force was unquestionable, it was politic to bear even with the surrender of Sumter, if by so doing the border slave States might be kept in the Union and the seceding ones possibly induced to reconsider their action. Fifth, the period immediately before the surrender of the fort, when it was determined to take all the consequences of decisive efforts to send supplies and reinforcements to the garrison.

The warlike acts of South Carolina were quite as numerous in their succession. First was the placing of State troops in charge of the United States arsenal, nominally to protect it and the public property in it; but that this was a seizure was evident from the fact that the officer in command of the forts was not allowed to take ordnance stores from the arsenal, even in the smallest quantity. Second was the seizure of Castle Pinckney by force, escalating the barred gate and making prisoners of the officer and one or two men in charge. Third was the seizure of Fort Moultrie. Fourth was the seizure of Fort Johnson. Fifth was the erection of batteries on Cummings Point and Sullivan's Island, and preparing all the forts for the attack on Sumter. Sixth, the firing on the *Star of the West* when she tried to carry in supplies and men to Sumter. Seventh, the bombardment of Sumter itself.

It seems quite clear that Major Anderson regarded all these acts as hostilities, but thought himself restrained by his orders from replying to them with his cannon, unless he should actually be attacked. His mental struggle seems to have been greatest when he saw the *Star of the West* fired upon and driven from the harbor. His military impulse was to fire upon those who were firing upon the national flag, but dread of the responsibility for the first shedding of blood restrained him. The letters and papers quoted by Gen. Crawford seem to prove that at that time Anderson believed the dissolution of the Union was an accomplished fact, and was only anxious that events which seemed inevitable might run their course without actual conflict. His personal sympathies were with the South in the political contest, yet he was determined to do his duty as a soldier with scrupulous fidelity. Hence arose a conflict in his own breast such as few men have undergone, and it is not strange that he solved his doubts in favor of avoiding bloodshed till he was actually attacked, and would have been glad to have been starved out instead of being reduced by the bombardment.

It is curious, however, to see how far even the officers of the United States had gone in yielding to the assertions of the secessionists that a

shot from the Government forts would be the beginning of war, while all the military preparations for the reduction of Sumter, and even the firing upon a Government ship, were to count as peaceful. As late as the 11th of April, the day before the bombardment opened, Commander Rowan of the *Pawnee*, off the harbor, refused to sail in for the bar, for the reason that it would be "to begin civil war"; but when on the 12th he saw the flashes of the guns, he was eager to join the fray which the Confederate batteries had begun.

It is the consideration of the confused state of mind in which were so many of the responsible actors in the great drama, both civilians and military men, that makes us feel it to be the duty of the historian to clear up the muddle, and help his readers by an analysis of the events which shall leave as little doubt as possible regarding the legal and military responsibilities of either side. The new matter which Gen. Crawford has collected is most of it very valuable, and a little bolder application of the principles we have suggested would make the book wholly satisfactory as a presentation of the dramatic beginning of the great conflict.

HOWELLS'S MODERN ITALIAN POETS.

Modern Italian Poets: Essays and Versions by W. D. Howells. With portraits. Harper & Bros. 1887.

MR. HOWELLS'S agreeable book is taken at a little less than its worth by the critics, because they regard it as a study of rather trivial literature, like those primary and secondary sonnetteers of Bettinelli who are embalmed in Sydney Smith's satire. But the book is really a chapter in the history of liberty, and the author was plainly led into this series of studies by the same generous impulse that led him—mistakenly, it may be—to petition for the life of the Chicago anarchists. The finest saying of Thomas Paine was his refusal to accept the motto *Ubi libertas, ubi patria*, on the ground that a brave man's motto should rather be "Where liberty is *not*, there is my country." When these younger Italian poets wrote, liberty did not exist in Italy; their aim was to secure it, or at least some measure of it; and Mr. Howells's first object is to give an intelligent comprehension of the work they did. We, however, find it necessary to defend his purpose not only against his critics, but against himself; for when he comes to writing his introduction he evidently distrusts his readers a little, and reverts, like so many heroes in his own novels, to an attitude of understatement and almost of *persiflage*. When he complains that, after all, political satire is not best relished in free countries, he forgets that it is but a little more than a quarter of a century since the last of the 'Biglow Papers' was written in our own; and he means, let us hope, a little more than he says, in adding, "I am not sure that literature is not as nobly employed in exciting men to heroism and martyrdom for a great cause as in the purveyance of mere intellectual delights" (p. 10). If he had not really felt sure of this, he would never have given us these three hundred and seventy pages of minor Italian poets.

Besides a little preliminary account of the "Arcadian Shepherds," Mr. Howells offers us sketches, longer or shorter, of eighteen authors, all of these being modern in the sense of dating back no further than the French Revolution. In this selection he again underrates the knowledge or the sympathy of his audience by assuming that even the best known of his poets is "scarcely more than a name to most English readers" (p. 51). Of course the majority of such readers do not read Italian, and

if that is what is meant, no Italian poet is more than a name to these. In a stricter sense also, it is true that "I Quattro Poeti," though still issued in a joint volume, have long since practically shrunk into two poets, Dante and Petrarch surviving Ariosto and Tasso. But poets may be more than names, even if we do not read their verses, and the picturesque and stormy life of Alfieri was so well recorded in his own autobiography, and was, moreover, so intermingled with the English and French adventures of his time, that he is really a more distinct figure than Ariosto to most English-speaking readers. Mr. Howells has skillfully retold Alfieri's story—the essay being that prefixed to his edition of the autobiography, as reprinted in 1877; but he has relied mainly on materials already familiar. Again, in the case of Manzoni, the novel of 'I Promessi Sposi' is still one of the common Italian text-books; Leopardi's poems have just been translated, fully though somewhat prosaically, by Frederick Townsend, with a preface by O. B. Frothingham, in which Leopardi is rated quite as highly as by Mr. Howells; Silvio Pellico is still remembered for his imprisonment and his naïve narrative; and Ugo Foscolo is almost counted as a naturalized Englishman in literature, a fact to which Mr. Howells scarcely alludes. He tells us that Foscolo went to London and "gained a livelihood by teaching the Italian language and lecturing on its literature" (p. 123); but he does not tell us that he was a favorite contributor to the London reviews, through the perfection of his English style; and that his essays on Dante and Petrarch, written in English, dedicated to Lady Dacre, and published in 1823, belong almost as essentially to English literature as do the sonnets of Rossetti.

Even these comparatively unforgotten poets, however, will doubtless take a new lease of life through the friendly intervention of Mr. Howells, and his treatment of the remainder will certainly shield them, for a time at least, from oblivion throughout the English-speaking world. But in considering the mode in which this is done, it is impossible not to perceive that Mr. Howells loses by the want of that possession in which Mr. J. A. Symonds, for instance, is so strong—a classical background for his modern study. In what Mr. Symonds writes we always see modern Italy in its proper perspective as relieved and illustrated by the older Italy behind; for Mr. Howells it is simply a modern country without historic past. This makes an almost insuperable drawback to a satisfactory treatment of Alfieri, who, although avoiding the Greek and Roman classics in his youth, became more and more infused with their spirit as time went on. When, for instance, Mr. Howells analyzes the differences between Alfieri and Shakspeare, he treats them simply as a personal matter, and wholly ignores the simpler solution that the one was a classicist and the other was not. Alfieri's handling of Orestes and of Fate, which was in reality a mere survival of the Greek habit of mind, is viewed by Mr. Howells (p. 95) as an individual whim, of which the whole key is lost.

But if the modern period is to be treated as something absolutely disconnected from the earlier age, no one could do it more felicitously than Mr. Howells. He sometimes pats and plays with it a little too much, and turns upon you with the sort of familiarity which he dislikes in Thackeray, as, "Is not this most charmingly done?" (p. 44)—or even in a way that verges on the slangy and journalistic, as, "I do not begin to think this is all true" (p. 69). Sometimes, also, he employs a foreign idiom, as when he says in a footnote, "Question of

Macchiavelli" (p. 119), meaning that the passage refers to that name. He has this sure merit, that he makes his book attractive; and his ventures into the field of translation have a peculiar charm. We have here the complaint to make, however, that he does not follow the usual course of Italian translators in giving the first words of the poem translated, for convenience of identification; and it is vexatious to have to look through the two hundred and fifty sonnets of our quarto Alfieri of 1809, merely to ascertain that those rendered are the 107th (*Quel tetro bronzo*) and the 167th (*Sublime specchio*). When found, the poem proves itself musically and faithfully translated, with such Howells-like felicities of phrase as "A proper nose" for *Giusto naso*; but it smacks of indolence when so skilful a master of words can hit upon no better rhymes than "mild" and "embroidered" (p. 101); and still more when we find him utterly disregarding that limited sequence of rhymes on which the Italian poets so pride themselves. The translator is right in giving us the alternate rhymes which Alfieri, unlike Petrarch, admitted; but whereas in each of these two sonnets the original has but four distinct terminations for the fourteen lines, the translator allows himself seven, and winds up, worst of all, by the Shaksperian closing couplet, which is alien to Italian verse. Mr. Howells has thus indulged himself in a far easier task than the occasion required, and one far lighter than other modern translators of sonnets exact of themselves. We regret to say that the same self-indulgence or negligence further shows itself in many lines so careless as to be almost doggerel, such as, from *Fusinato* (p. 365):

"And now be shivered upon the stone here
Till thou be free again, O lyre I bear."

This is the more to be regretted because he is capable, under sufficient effort, of very graceful and sweet translation, as in the cradle song called "Nanna" (p. 361), though even this is disfigured by such careless rhymes as "love me" with "love thee," "come" with "doom," and "abroad" with "God."

We have been thus frankly critical with Mr. Howells because he is justly called upon, as one of our acknowledged masters, to do his work thoroughly and keep to a high standard. His book, as a whole, is a most agreeable one; the publisher's part is well done; the portraits, though unattractive, are probably not more so than the Italian originals; the binding is peculiarly appropriate, and there is no serious defect except the want of an index.

Winter. From the Journal of Henry D. Thoreau. Edited by H. G. O. Blake. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THOREAU himself questions whether any life is rich enough to be journalized; but his editor's method, of making the whole life cover only a single natural year by selection and rearrangement, probably never occurred to him as a solution of the difficulties of triviality and monotony that make the days tedious. In the case of a growing mind such a method would hardly be applicable. Thoreau did not change much, either in himself or in his surroundings, and perhaps the type of his character is better defined by this composite-photography device of laying day upon day in the record. In this last instalment, which ends the series, he preserves his three-fold interest as an observer of nature, a man with a theory of plain living, and a writer whose mind was visited by stray thoughts. In all of these aspects he is still a noticeable figure in our literature.

The season of winter is one which he was es-

pecially fitted to report. He could not keep indoors, and by the help of skates and snow-shoes he travelled far. The New England winter, too, is a season of marvellous sky-color and snow reflection, and for color Thoreau had a sensitive and appreciative eye. Some of the scenes he gives to us are of great beauty merely for their graduated tones and hues. Of bird and plant and animal life there is little, but the lack is abundantly made up for by these broad prospects, which were his principal pleasure until the sound of running water under the snow and ice made his pulses warm with the thought of the coming spring. But, rich as the record is, it is not one which the reviewer can report.

Of Thoreau's theory of life enough has been written in the time when it was a novel thing, not in itself, but in the practical illustration he gave to it. In these entries one sees how genuinely he held it, and both what it did and what it failed to do for him. The principal value of it was that it left him time to meditate, not so much to think as to be a passive instrument of that mood when thoughts occur to the mind. Many of these are treasured in the journal; one wonders whether it was not to him what the note-book was to Emerson, a receptacle to which he had recourse in writing his books. Their literary form is clear and hard, and often they have the indefinable quality of felicities. It is singular to observe once more the wide interval between the poetry of his prose and the prose of his poetry. He had the touch of the poet now and then, but in his verse his muse was disenchanted, the fairies' gift changing at once into sticks and stones in his hands. He had some of the methods and the waiting spirit of the poet; but the message came without music. He writes: "To please our friends and relatives we turn our silver-ore into cart-loads, while we neglect to work our mines of gold, known only to ourselves, far up in the Sierras where we pulled up a bush in our mountain walk and saw the glittering treasure." This is a fine image. It is a pleasing fancy when he speaks of the ice that crystallizes about holes in the ground as "the frozen breath of the earth upon its beard." Such bits are not infrequent. There are striking sentences—"A friend in history looks like some premature soul"; and on the next page a phrase about the Greek attracts the eye: "He has left nothing unsaid, but has actually wiped his lips of it." Such examples remind us again of Thoreau's true literary faculty, the power of perfect speech. "So soon as we begin to count the cost, the cost begins," is an apothegm out of his own life. One could keep on quoting; but it is sufficient to be reminded that while such a literary gift is proved as is shown in these journals, together with such an ownership in his own thoughts, so close and full-eyed an outlook on natural beauty and such interest in the life of creation, Thoreau cannot be dismissed by a just critic as the eccentric inhabitant of a parish; he was more than that, and has had with justice more than a parochial interest to other men. Presumably this is the last of his books, and in putting it on the shelf one is quite sure that the row of volumes will be a long-remembered memorial of old New England.

Philosophy of Theism. By Borden P. Bowne. 8vo, pp. 269. Harper & Bros. 1887.

THEISTIC speculations of the present day have to contend with the universal tendency to concede that, even if the existence of God and immortality are given up, truth and duty remain the same for us as before. When it was thought

that religion existed in order to be proved, or that it did not exist until it was proved, seeking for the "grounds" of truth and virtue was a very respectable calling. But we have come to see that there may be a great difference between the order of things and the order of our knowledge. Hence, metaphysical theories have only a secondary interest compared with facts. Prof. Bowne is not guilty of confusing the *ratio essendi* with the *ratio cognoscendi* of religion, nor does he pretend that men cannot be religious or moral until they have adopted a philosophy of theism. But, whatever importance he may attach to theistic beliefs, his confident and overbearing manner of argument will convert nobody to them. Lack of philosophic charity is the author's besetting sin. If this book had been written in the spirit of scorn and absurd defiance which characterizes his preface to the fifth edition of the 'Metaphysics,' we might have treated it with contempt. Although it is free from insanity, it is not wanting in self-assurance, browbeating, and the intimidation of opposing opinions. Happily the world is coming to respect a man more for his Christian treatment of views different from his own than for his sharp debating. We expect as much mercy and consideration from a philosopher as from the Deity for whose existence he may be so solicitous. Logical proofs of metaphysical doctrines are less valuable than moral character, and hence railing at a man because we have not convinced him will effect no more than stamping one's foot or kicking a stone. Calm moral sympathy for religious doubt is the first condition of effective philosophic discussion in the nineteenth century, and hence we could wish that the author had the spirit of Lotze, T. H. Green, and Martineau. Martineau is trenchant, but, nevertheless, he has a heart.

The old method of proving the existence of God by stopping with the evidence for a First Cause the author justly abandons to ignorance of the question. Hence there are mainly three topics for discussion, representing as many distinct factors in the problem: the unity of the world-ground, the world-ground as intelligent, and the world-ground as ethical. The other chapters are parts of the same theme. The statement, that theism is the only system capable of satisfying "the total interests of life," is too comprehensive to be received until we know what is going to be made of it. Of course, the author means our scientific, philosophic, moral, and religious "interests." But the conception of interest is a dangerous one to trust implicitly. It has so many ramifications that it may, at any time, shut us off into anthropomorphism in philosophy and into selfishness in ethics. Our scientific interests are satisfied by the unity of nature and the uniformity of causation, without stopping to inquire whether they imply personality or not. But in seeking to satisfy our moral and religious interests we may be prompted by something like the question: "Will God take care of us when we die?" Humanity's plaintive cry for immortality is profoundly interesting, and its belief in God may be wholly unselfish. But there is room here for motives which have nothing to do with the truth of a doctrine. The question is whether the expression of emotional instincts, which are much like "the will to live," and dangerously allied to self-interested impulses, prove anything.

The author would not be considered a pantheist. But the difference between this position and the one he does hold might be only one of accent. He could compromise by adopting *Pan-Theism*. He emphasizes two systems between which, it seems, our choice is to be made, theism and atheism. But there is agnosticism,

which is as positive and as dogmatic a creed as either of the others. And there is the fourth, of letting the question entirely alone. But what are you going to do with this ominous silence? You cannot argue with it, for it is irrational to pick a quarrel with a man who is peaceable and says nothing. It remains, then, as a system which adapts itself to known facts, and has neither belief, nor disbelief even, about an unknowable. Hence there is one case in which logic is not the Nemesis of Faith.

The Standard Cantatas: Their Stories, their Music, and their Composers. By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg. Pp. 367. 1888.

MR. UPTON has added another to his very useful musical handbooks. It is arranged on the same plan as his 'Standard Operas' and 'Standard Oratorios,' the first named of which is already in its fourth thousand. In the historic introduction he calls attention to the different senses in which the word cantata is used. He himself uses it in the widest sense, and includes in its such works as Berlioz's "Faust" and "Romeo and Juliet." In the case of the classical composers, who were very prolific in this kind of composition, only a selection could, of course, be made, and of Bach's 480 cantatas, for instance, only the four which are most frequently performed are analyzed. Besides describing the plot of the texts, Mr. Upton always calls attention to the best musical numbers, avoiding technical terms as much as possible. A large number of cantatas by American composers are included in the list.

We hope that Mr. Upton will not rest on his laurels, but will prepare another handbook that would prove very useful. Every observer of concert-hall audiences must have noted that many pay much closer attention to a piece if they know something regarding its origin and the pictorial idea that may have been in the composer's mind when he conceived it. Nor is this curiosity at all to be condemned; for the mind's eye being given some scene to fix upon, we are enabled the more easily to forget the artificial surroundings in a concert hall. Moreover, people like to talk about the pieces they have heard, and it is much easier to talk about the biography of a composition than about the music itself. Now, if Mr. Upton would select a few hundred of the symphonies, overtures, etc., etc., that are most frequently played, and explain their meaning, pictorial or biographic,

with some æsthetic remarks on form and feeling, he would do a service to all concert-goers. And concert-givers would find it an advantage to get the author's permission to reprint on their programmes such of his notices as might be desirable.

Half-Hours with American History. By Charles Morris, author of 'Half-Hours with the Best American Authors.' Vol. I. Colonial America. Vol. II. Independent America. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1887.

MR. MORRIS aims to present the story of the nation by selections from the works of leading historians upon the most important topics. These selections are chronologically arranged, divided into periods, and connected by brief outlines of intermediate events supplied by the author. History does not so readily lend itself to this mode of treatment as do other branches of literature, and we miss especially the continuity and unity so important to the complete presentation of a subject, and which cannot be supplied by connecting notes. On the other hand, there is value in the emphasis given by the method to events of particular importance, and in the variety of treatment. Taken in connection with some standard history, the work will also do good service by interesting its readers in the authors represented in the selections. The difficult task of culling has been executed with much skill by Mr. Morris. One is glad to find that while liberal, but not excessive, use is made of such writers as Bancroft and Parkman, local historians have not been neglected. While we must wish that more frequent use had been made of contemporary writers, yet the selections, on the whole, seem judiciously chosen for the purpose in view. The notes, which are simply condensed statements of fact, are in general correct; but the author is not entirely free from errors, as in the slip which makes him say that Alexander Hamilton was one of the defenders of popular rights at the time of the negro plot in New York. The reference is to Andrew Hamilton.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Gérard de Nerval. *Sylvie. Recollections of Valois.* George Routledge & Sons. \$1.
Goodwin, Mrs. H. B. *Our Party of Four: A Story of Travel.* Boston: Cupples & Hurd. \$1.
Guiney, Louise Imogen: *The White Sail.* Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Hale, E. E. *The Life of George Washington Studied Anew.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75.
Hall, S. C. *The Book of British Ballads.* Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

Harris, H. Christophe Colomb et Savone. Verzel-luo et ses Memorie. Genoa: A. Donath; New York: F. W. Christern.
Harris, H. Le Quatrième Centenaire de la Découverte du Nouveau Monde. Genoa: Donath; New York: F. W. Christern.
Henry Ward Beecher: A Memorial. Brooklyn: Plymouth Church.
Huebisch, S. Volapük: A Guide for Learning the Universal Language. New York.
Hutton, R. H. Essays on Some of the Modern Guides of English Thought in Matters of Faith. Macmillan & Co. \$1.50.
Heron-Allen, E. The Suleide of Sylvester Gray. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hornaday, W. T. Free Rum on the Congo, and What it is Doing There. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association.
Howells, W. D. April Hopes. Harper & Brothers.
Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, the Talmud Babil and Yerushalmi, and the Midrashic Literature. Part II. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.
Jubilee and Plantation Songs, Sung by Hampton Students, Jubilee Singers, and others. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Kendall, May. Dreams to Sell. Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.
Kirkup, T. An Inquiry into Socialism. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.50.
Larcom, Lucy. The Cross and the Grail. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association.
Lawless, Hon. Emily. The Story of Ireland. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
Life's Problems, Here and Hereafter: An Autobiography. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. \$1.25.
Lillie, Lucy C. The Colonel's Money. Harper & Brothers.
Lockyer, Prof. J. N. The Outlines of the Earth. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Madan, P. Rough List of Manuscript Materials Relating to the History of Oxford. Arranged with an Index. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. \$3.50.
Mahaffy, J. P. Greek Life and Thought from the Age of Alexander to the Roman Conquest. Macmillan & Co. \$3.50.
Mahaffy, J. P. The Principles of the Art of Conversation. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Mahaly Sawyer, or, Putting Yourself in her Place. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. \$1.25.
Martin, Frances. Elizabeth Gilbert and her Work for the Blind. Macmillan & Co. \$1.75.
May, C. Moly: A Book of Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.
McNemar, Miles. Prince Coastwind's Victory. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Molesworth, Mrs. Little Miss Peggy: Only a Nursery Story. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. \$1.25.
Morgan, Mary. Poems. Montreal: J. Theodore Robinson.
Muir-Carnegie. Practical Chemistry: A Course of Laboratory Work. Macmillan & Co. 80 cents.
Murray, Prof. J. Elocution for Advanced Pupils. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.
Neubauer, A. D. Mediaeval Jewish Chronicles. [Anecdota Oxoniensia.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Nicholas, G. A. The Biddy Club: and How its Members Grappled with the Troublesome Servant Question. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.25.
Noel, Lady Augusta. Hithersea Mere. Macmillan & Co. \$1.
O'Donnell, Jessie F. Heart Lyrics. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.
Ohora, L. M. The Angel of the Village. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. \$1.25.
Palgrave, W. G. A Ulysses; or, Scenes and Studies in Many Lands. Macmillan & Co. \$3.50.
Pattison-Slater. Elementary Chemistry. Macmillan & Co. \$1.25.
Personal Remembrances of Sir Frederick Pollock. In 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. \$5.
Plummer, C. Elizabethan Oxford. Clarendon Press.
Pomeroy, J. N. A Treatise on the Law of Riparian Rights, as the same is Formulated and Applied in the Pacific States. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Purdy, T. H. Legends of the Susquehanna, and Other Poems. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.
Randolph, H. F. Fifty Years of English Song. Selections from the Poets of the Reign of Victoria. In 4 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$5.
Wood, H. Natural Law in the Business World. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 30 cents.
Wood, J. J. A Child of Genius: A Sketch. C. T. Dillingham. 30 cents.

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